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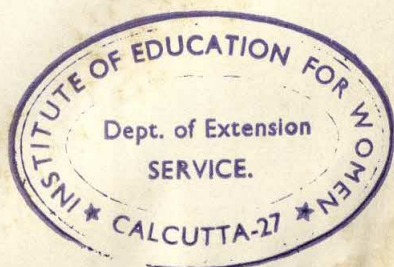
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MODERN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Basic Principles and Practices



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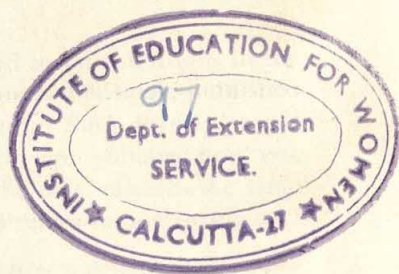
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Basic Principles and Practices



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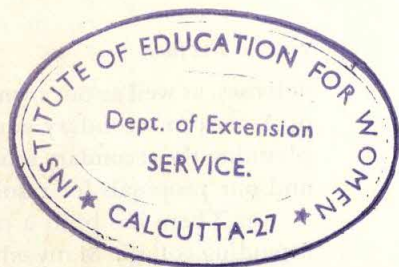


MODERN
SECONDARY
EDUCATION

Basic Principles and Practices

Second Printing, August 1959

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PREFACE

Significant changes in educational and social conditions in the 1950's have impelled us to rewrite completely our earlier book, published almost a decade ago, entitled *Secondary Education: Basic Principles and Practices*. The fundamental purpose of the present volume, however, despite the addition of the word "Modern" to the title, remains the same as that stated in the opening paragraph of the Preface to our 1950 work:

Secondary Education: Basic Principles and Practices is designed as a source of information and ideas for all who work or plan to work in secondary schools. In the expectation that our largest number of readers will be persons preparing to be secondary school teachers, we have tried to answer the questions asked by beginning teachers whom we have supervised or taught. We have also tried to give enough information about innovative practices to stimulate the beginners to examine all practices critically; at the same time we have attempted to help the experienced teacher in his search for better ways of working.

Among the new conditions which we have taken into consideration in the present volume are the following:

1. American educators have become increasingly interested in educational developments in other nations. Accordingly, we have introduced two new chapters (7 and 8) dealing with secondary education in four European nations: England, France, West Germany, and Russia.

2. Happily, the general public has become much more concerned about educational problems than in previous decades. Throughout the 1950's and especially after the launching of the Russian Sputnik in 1957, opinion has been sharply divided as to the merits and demerits of secondary education in America. The high school curriculum has been sharply criticized and as vigorously defended. Two new chapters have been prepared to give adequate attention to these recent developments and their implications. Chapter 3 presents many typical criticisms and

defenses, as well as our own analysis of the achievements and shortcomings of American secondary education. Chapter 10 identifies critical issues in planning the secondary school curriculum, their implications for teachers, and our proposals for resolving them.

3. There has been a continuing increase in the proportion of youth attending college. Many educators now feel that we may be going through a period of transition toward almost universal higher education comparable to the movement earlier in this century toward universal secondary education. In the chapters on the high school curriculum (Part IV), we have tried, therefore, to include much more material relative to the articulation of secondary and higher education.

In addition to the chapters included for the purposes just described, we have tried to include the most recent statistical data and illustrative material available. Up-to-date references have also been supplied in the chapter bibliographies ("For Further Study").

The organization of chapters corresponds to the divisions of usual basic courses in secondary education such as those we ourselves have taught: teachers and pupils (Part One); the place of the secondary school in American life (Part Two); secondary education in certain other nations (Part Three); the curriculum of the secondary school (Part Four); major aspects of teaching in secondary schools (Part Five); and the administrative structure of secondary education (Part Six).

We wish to acknowledge our debt to users of *Secondary Education: Basic Principles and Practices*, both students and their instructors, as well as in-service teachers, who have given suggestions considered in preparing the present book. Especially are we indebted to the following readers for thoroughgoing reviews of the earlier book: Professors James E. Curtis of San Jose State College, S. E. Torsten Lund of the University of California, and Forest L. Shoemaker of Ohio University. Appreciation is also expressed to publishers and authors who have generously given permission to quote from their copyrighted works, and to the school systems and organizations which have provided photographs and other illustrations.

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER
J. GALEN SAYLOR

February, 1959

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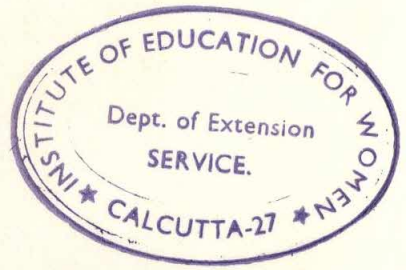
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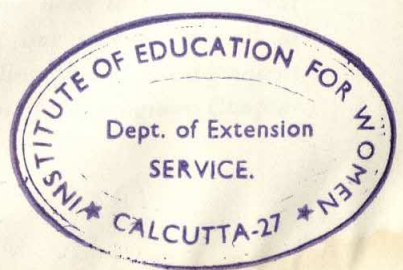
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part one

MODERN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Basic Principles and Practices



part one

TEACHERS AND PUPILS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

A book on the principles and practices of secondary education ought to begin with a consideration of the two most important factors in the whole process of education—the teacher and the pupil. This we have done. Chapter 1 discusses the work and position of the teacher in the secondary school, and Chapter 2 presents essential facts about the pupils who attend our schools.

Most students of secondary education will have had introductory courses in professional education in which the responsibilities of a teacher and the nature of the teaching process have been analyzed. In Chapter 1, we will, therefore, restrict our treatment to certain aspects of teaching of special interest to the high school teacher himself. We include here information about the job of the high school teacher, opportunities for employment in the secondary schools, trends in salaries paid high school teachers, and requirements for certification to teach in the secondary schools. The education of the teacher is very important, and attention is given to that aspect of our profession. The secondary school teacher holds a very responsible and exacting position in our society, one in which he can take great pride, as well as win the approbation of the citizens of a community.

If we as teachers are to plan an adequate program of education for boys and girls, we need to know a great deal about youth who attend our schools as well as about youth in general, including those who do not at present remain until completion of the program. Chapter

2 provides a large body of information of this type about secondary school pupils. Again, we have avoided duplication of the principles and concepts studied in courses in educational psychology and adolescent behavior, but have presented data of a specialized nature that should enable teachers to understand better the characteristics of the pupils who enroll in our secondary schools. This chapter also suggests types of studies of the youth population that may well be made by the staff members of a secondary school as a basis for planning a program for their own school. Secondary education in America is universal education, but it is good education only if it is planned to provide each boy and girl with those kinds of learning experiences that will contribute maximally to their growth and development in approved directions.

I

The Secondary School Teacher

In a book devoted to a consideration and analysis of the basic principles and practices of secondary education, it is proper that we first discuss the teacher who works in our secondary school. It is the teacher who determines in a large measure the character and quality of the program provided the boys and girls enrolled, for it is he who will work intimately with them in planning and developing learning experiences that promise to contribute most to their education. The role of the teacher is central to the discharge of the responsibilities for which the school was established in the first place.

Throughout the history of civilized man, teaching has been an honorable and highly respected calling. It is the teacher, primarily, on whom the citizen depends for the perpetuation and improvement of the society of which he is a member. The teacher is so important to a society that all advanced countries require children to be instructed by a teacher for a considerable portion of their maturing years. Many communities throughout the world exist and flourish without the services of other professional workers, but the teacher is present everywhere so that the education of boys and girls may be advanced. Teaching is a service of utmost importance in our society today.

This entire book will primarily focus on the work of the secondary school teacher and how he may better discharge his responsibilities to the social group that establishes and operates the school, but in this first chapter, we shall consider the teacher himself—his opportunities for service, his preparation for teaching, his status as a member of the profession, his work with his professional co-workers through professional groups, and his efforts to continue to grow and develop in professional skill and leadership.

Opportunities in Teaching in Secondary Schools

Over 470,000 teachers now hold positions in the public secondary schools of the United States; an additional 60,000 are employed in private and parochial high schools; and about 27,000 serve as principals and supervisors of secondary schools. In addition, many other educators hold positions in the broad area of secondary education, including college instructors in secondary education, staff members of state departments of education, and associate superintendents of schools in charge of secondary schools.

Teachers constitute by far the largest professional group in this country, numbering about 1,500,000 persons. In comparison, there are about 180,000 lawyers, 167,000 clergymen, 218,000 physicians, 83,000 dentists, 24,756 architects, 400,000 nurses, and 530,000 engineers. Secondary school teachers themselves are about equal in number to the largest professional group in any other occupation. Thus it is a field of broad and varied opportunities.

TYPES OF POSITIONS AVAILABLE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The kinds of positions open to those trained in the field of secondary education are numerous, although many of the specialized and administrative types of jobs require additional training and experience. To be selected for these positions, however, a person almost always must first have proved himself to be a successful teacher, and to have demonstrated clearly his ability to work with boys and girls in classroom situations.

The following list of types of positions held by those trained in secondary education does not attempt to rank the positions in terms of relative importance or amount of salary, nor does it include all the titles used to designate personnel.

Teacher of a subject

Teacher of a core or multiple-period class

Coach or director of an activity, such as athletics

Supervisor or coordinator for a subject area, core program, or school activity

Counselor; guidance officer

Director of guidance

Director of audiovisual aids bureau or of instructional materials

Librarian

Class counselor

Director of extraclass activities

Dean of girls

Dean of boys

Assistant principal

Principal

Director of secondary education

Director or coordinator of secondary school curriculum and instruction

Assistant or associate superintendent in charge of secondary schools

Staff member, state department of education

College instructor in secondary education

Specialists in secondary education on staffs of publishing houses, manufacturers of instructional materials, and similar agencies

Staff member with professional organizations and similar groups

Most persons working in the field of secondary education are, of course, teachers, but many opportunities do exist in these specialized types of positions for those interested in administration, supervision, or staff work.

THE CHALLENGE OF TEACHING

Those of us who have chosen teaching as a career find that it offers much in personal satisfactions, as well as an opportunity to be of service to our fellow men. Guiding the development of adolescents and aiding them in attaining the full measure of their potentialities can indeed be a rewarding professional experience. Through his work with boys and girls in the school, the teacher has the opportunity to share significantly in shaping our whole social structure and the kind of society we will have in the future. In all of creation, contributing to the development of the human being and helping him achieve the full measure of his powers and capacities is the noblest act of mankind. Teachers who share in the process of unfolding these talents gain a kind of satisfaction that is not obtained in any other way.

The teacher is constantly engaged in creative work, in utilizing his knowledge, insight, and skill in planning learning experiences that will contribute maximally to the development of each individual boy and girl. Each day, each pupil presents a new challenge to the teacher to be creative, to call on all of his resources to make wise decisions on what will best educate the individual for life in society now and for shaping the society in which the pupil will live in the years ahead.

The teacher's pursuits are primarily intellectual: professional competency calls for continued study, for close observation, and for a sensitivity to social change and to the impact of new discoveries and invention on the lives of people. Mental alacrity is desirable among teachers, and



A Teacher Has Many Opportunities to Use Imagination and Creativeness. This committee of teachers is planning a curriculum guide for a course in applied mathematics at the junior high school level. (Courtesy of the Lincoln, Nebraska, Public Schools.)

they should have a thirst for knowledge and enjoy intellectual activities. Teaching is indeed a challenging profession.

THE DEMAND FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Teaching is a rapidly expanding profession and opportunities for employment are exceptional. By now, almost everyone is familiar with the shortage that exists in the supply of well-trained, competent teachers, and the demand is certain to increase in the years ahead. The professional teacher is a much-sought-after person, one who has many job opportunities.

The number of public secondary school teachers in this country has increased over fortyfold since 1890, and the number in private schools sevenfold. Table 1 shows the numbers employed from the school year 1889-1890 to 1949-1950 by six-year intervals (the Biennial Survey of Education is made each odd-numbered year), and for the first four bienniums of the mid-century period. The gain in the seven-year period from 1949-1950 to 1955-1956 alone was almost 100,000 teachers. It should be

noted that these figures do not include those who occupy administrative and supervisory positions in the secondary schools.

An examination of the reports of the United States Office of Education shows that the number of secondary school teachers employed in this country has increased every biennium since the figures were first

TABLE I
Number of Secondary School Teachers, 1889-1890 to 1957-1958

YEAR	NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ^a		
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	TOTAL
1889-1890	9,120	7,209	16,329
1895-1896	15,700	8,752	24,452
1901-1902	22,415	9,903	32,318
1907-1908	35,399	8,564	43,963
1913-1914	57,909	13,890	71,799
1919-1920	101,958	14,946	116,904
1925-1926	169,538	20,145	189,683
1931-1932	231,153	25,053	256,206
1937-1938	282,473	27,964	310,437
1943-1944	289,054	34,025 ^b	323,079
1949-1950	324,093	40,215	364,308
1951-1952	343,060	41,701	384,761
1953-1954	374,618	49,123	423,741
1955-1956	410,203	50,730	460,933
1957-1958	470,000 ^c	NA	

^a Does not include supervisory personnel or principals; beginning with 1931-1932 it includes teachers in junior high schools and six-year high schools.

^b Figure for private schools not available, average of previous and following year.

^c Based on annual survey made in the fall of the year.

NA Not available.

Source: U.S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, for years indicated, except 1913-1914 figures, which were revised later.

compiled in 1867, with the exception of the years during World War II. In some of the bienniums the increase was as much as 20,000 to 30,000 teachers. Opportunities are still expanding rapidly, as is shown in Figure 1.

The steep rise since 1889-1890 in the total number of secondary school teachers is shown, but most significant for us is the projection which shows the total number that will be needed each biennium until 1965-1966. It is reliably estimated that we will need at least 700,000 teachers for our secondary schools by 1965-1966, a few short years

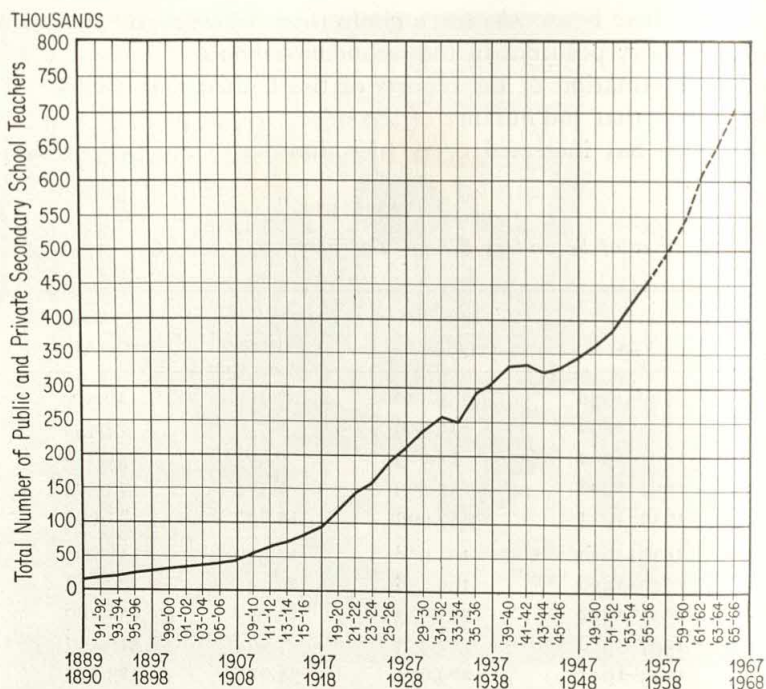


Figure 1. Total Number of Secondary School Teachers in the United States, 1889-1890 to 1957-1958, and Estimated Number to Be Employed, 1958-1959 to 1965-1966. (Source: U.S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*; estimates based on projected enrollment, as given in Table 15, page 75.)

hence.¹ This will represent an astounding increase of 50 per cent in the number of secondary school teachers to be employed by 1965-1966 compared with 1956-1957. In summarizing future demands for both elementary and secondary school teachers, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, established by the Ford Foundation, stated in November, 1955:

In order to provide for replacements, expansion and the maintenance of present pupil-teacher ratios, the schools of the nation must find 16 new teachers between now and 1965 for every 10 teachers now on the job. This is the equivalent of replacing all the teachers we now have and finding 60 per cent in addition—all within 10 years.²

¹ A forecast of the number of teachers needed in the public schools for the years up to 1959-1960 is published in National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Forecast for the Public Schools," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 4:53-58 (March, 1953).

² The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *Teachers for Tomorrow* (Bulletin

If this estimate also applies only to the secondary school, and it surely does, considering the greatly increased enrollments anticipated by 1965, as shown in Chapter 2, we can conclude that more than 730,000 *new* teachers must be employed during the ten-year period 1955-1965. This number includes the 244,000 teachers needed to fill new positions that must be created by 1965 to take care of the increases in enrollments and the 486,000 needed to replace those of the present corps who will retire or leave the profession for other reasons by that date. Obviously, teaching is an expanding profession, with almost unlimited opportunities for employment.

In addition to these estimates of the number of secondary school teachers required for our schools by 1965, officials in several states have made analyses of the number needed for their respective states. The California State Department of Education makes a continuing study of the supply and demand of teachers in that state. As a part of these studies, Larson predicted that California will need 63,110 new teachers during the thirteen-year period from 1958-1959 to 1970-1971 just to replace secondary school teachers who will retire, resign, or die during the period; an additional 36,210 will be required to handle increased enrollments in the secondary schools of California. On the average, this means that California needs 7,640 new secondary school teachers each year until at least 1970-1971.³ In a more detailed report on these studies, which explains the methodology and assumptions employed, Stone stated the situation confronting California during the eleven-year period 1955-1956 to 1965-1966 in these words:

This means that in the next eleven years a supply of teachers nearly double the total number currently employed must be recruited, trained, and made available for assignment.⁴

A comprehensive study for Michigan estimates that the demand for secondary school teachers in that state will increase rapidly, reaching a peak for the present in 1963-1964. In that year Michigan will need 4,395 new secondary teachers, 2,865 to replace those who retire, resign, or die in service, and 1,530 to take care of increased high school enrollments.⁵

No. 2; New York: The Fund, November, 1955), p. 19. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

³ Carl A. Larson, "Teachers for California's Schools, 1958-59-1970-71," *California Schools*, 29:450-453 (August, 1958).

⁴ James C. Stone, *Supply and Demand: Certificated Personnel in California Public Schools, 1955 with Forecast for 1965-1966*, *Bulletin of the California State Department of Education* (No. 4), 24:26 (July, 1955).

⁵ Michigan Council of State College Presidents, Milosh Muntyan (Director), *Teacher Demand and Supply in Michigan: 1954-1970* (Ann Arbor: J. W. Edwards, Publisher, Inc., 1956), p. 42.

This enormous increase in the number of new teaching positions that must be created in secondary schools if we are to maintain our present practices in regard to class size, teacher load, and school services is due to the phenomenal increase expected in pupil enrollments in secondary schools because of an increase in the number of youth of secondary school age and because of a gradual increase in the percentage of the total youth population attending secondary schools. Both of these developments are discussed in Chapter 2.

THE SUPPLY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The potential supply of young people who will be available for employment in the secondary schools is much more difficult to project than the number of teachers who will be needed. Nevertheless, some careful research has provided us with some insight into the situation. In its significant study of the situation in 1955 The Fund for the Advancement of Education reached these disquieting conclusions:

If we match our needs against the prospective supply of well-qualified teachers, we can come to only one conclusion: *It will be impossible under the present pattern of teacher recruitment and teacher utilization to secure anywhere near enough good teachers for our schools and colleges over the next 15 years. . . .*

About one-fifth of all 1954 graduates of four-year colleges entered school teaching. But during the next ten years one-half of all college graduates of every variety would have to enter school teaching in order to fill our needs entirely from this major source. . . .

Nothing approaching this proportion of college graduates can be expected to enter teaching.⁶

Since 1948 the Research Division of the National Education Association has made an annual study of teacher supply and demand. These studies analyze the existing situation, but no projections are made of future supply or demand. However, the studies do reveal trends over a period of years.⁷ The total number of college graduates in 1950 and 1958 who prepared to teach in the various fields of instruction in secondary schools is shown in Table 2, which also shows the change that took place in the number preparing to teach in each major field from 1950 to 1958. It should be pointed out that, because of the piling up of World War II veterans, 1950 was the peak year in this country for the number of persons receiving a bachelor's degree; hence a decline in teacher supply was probably inevitable, but it occurred at a time when

⁶ The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 21-23.

⁷ Parenthetically, college students preparing to teach and their college advisers will find these annual reports very helpful in planning careers with relation to choice of subject fields for major and minor areas of preparation.

the demand for teachers, as is shown in Figure 1, increased significantly. The percentage of college graduates preparing to teach also declined: in 1950, 20.0 per cent of the graduates prepared to be secondary school teachers; in 1956, the figure was 18.2. Moreover, it is apparent that these figures do not show whether the supply either in 1950 or in 1958 was

TABLE 2
Number of College Graduates Prepared to Teach
in Each High School Field, 1950 and 1958,
and Per Cent Change, 1950 to 1958

COLLEGE GRADUATES	1950	1958	PER CENT CHANGE FROM 1950 TO 1958
Receiving bachelor's degrees	433,734	<i>a</i>	
Prepared to teach in high school			
Major in			
Agriculture	3,294	1,780	-46.0
Art	2,225	2,383	+7.1
Commerce	7,235	6,472	-10.5
English	10,709	7,733	-27.8
Foreign language	2,193	1,834	-16.4
Home economics	4,899	4,660	-4.9
Industrial arts	4,890	3,907	-20.1
Mathematics	4,618	3,633	-21.3
Men's physical education	10,614	7,777	-26.7
Music	5,296	5,521	+4.2
Science	9,096	5,852	-35.7
Social science	15,349	12,172	-20.7
Women's physical education	3,178	3,046	-4.2
Other fields	3,294	5,117	+55.3
Total	86,890	71,887	-17.3

^a Data not available.

Source: National Education Association, Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1958* (Report of the Eleventh Annual National Teacher Supply and Demand Study; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958), Table 3.

adequate in terms of demand; they show only the changes in the numbers preparing to teach. Actually, we know that serious shortages in the supply of secondary teachers existed during those years.

It should be noted, however, that the number of graduates who prepared to teach in the elementary school did increase during this period

from 28,587 in 1950 to 44,102 in 1958, a gain of over 54 per cent.⁸ Since the most severe shortage during this period was in the elementary school, such a shift in supply was understandable. However, a substantial increase in the number of college graduates preparing to teach in the secondary schools has occurred in recent years. For example, 56,785 graduates in 1956 prepared for service in the secondary schools; in 1958 the number had increased to 71,887. But demand for secondary school teachers will increase significantly during the next decade, and, as The Fund for the Advancement of Education pointed out, it is doubtful if needs can be met from the ranks of those graduating from college. In presenting these figures it is important to note that not all of those who prepare to teach actually enter the profession. In fact, the NEA study shows that 65.5 per cent of the 1957 graduates who prepared to teach in the secondary school were so employed the ensuing school year.

Another aspect of the problem in the secondary school is the distribution among the various fields of the number preparing to teach. For example, the number of graduates preparing to teach science in 1958 decreased 35.7 per cent from the number in 1950; in mathematics, the decrease was 21.3 per cent; in English, 27.8; and in the social sciences, 20.7. But in art, the number increased 7.1 per cent and in music, 4.2 per cent; in home economics, the decrease was only 4.9 per cent. These figures still do not reveal the relationship of supply and demand in a field, only the proportionate increase or decline in the number preparing to be teachers. But in view of the general shortage of secondary school teachers, it is apparent that the situation is much more serious in some fields than in others. In fact, the shortage is so great in the fields of science and mathematics, two fields closely identified with our national security in this technological age, that federal and state governmental agencies and many groups of educators and lay citizens have undertaken programs designed to induce more young people to prepare to teach these subjects. In his detailed study of the situation in California, Stone presented figures on the anticipated supply-and-demand situation in California. On the basis of his study, which makes several assumptions about potential supply, he concluded that the probable supply of teachers for the secondary schools would be considerably short of the demand until about 1965.⁹

In summary, employment opportunities for secondary school teachers in the years ahead are indeed rosy. Actually, a serious shortage exists, and community after community are finding it extremely difficult to staff

⁸ National Education Association, Research Division, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1958* (Report of the Eleventh Annual National Teacher Supply and Demand Study; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958), p. 11.

⁹ Stone, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

fully their secondary schools with competent teachers. The country desperately needs qualified teachers.

TRENDS IN TEACHERS' SALARIES

As for the opportunities available to those interested in teaching in the secondary school, the salaries paid teachers become a matter of great importance. The relative economic status of teaching as a profession is a significant factor in determining the extent to which young people prepare to enter the field and remain in it. However, because salaries change, often significantly, from year to year, they are likely to be out-of-date almost as soon as they are tabulated. Moreover, any single figure stating an average or a median salary does not show the wide variation that exists in teachers' salaries within a single school system relative to years of service, levels of preparation, and the like. For these reasons, the student interested in analyzing the current situation is urged to refer to the biennial surveys of teachers' salaries, made in the even-numbered school years by the Research Division of the National Education Association.¹⁰

Even though they are already inaccurate in picturing the exact salaries paid teachers today, Table 3 shows the most recent salary data available (1956-1957) and compares these median salaries with those paid secondary school teachers in 1930-1931 to show trends.

During this twenty-seven-year period, which encompasses a severe economic depression, a world-wide war, and a period of high economic productivity, the salaries of secondary school teachers in urban cities as expressed by the median, or middle, salary, have more than doubled. The salaries of those employed in the smaller cities have increased more, percentagewise, than salaries of teachers in the larger cities, amounting in some instances to almost three times the amount received in 1930-1931. Moreover, in general, teachers' salaries have increased since this NEA study was made.

Most school systems adopt a schedule which shows the salaries to be paid teachers in terms of the level of their college preparation and the years they have been teaching in the system, with some credit usually being given for approved experience in other systems prior to the teacher's joining the school's staff. Salary schedules have been revised upward almost every year in school systems throughout the country, so teachers have received not only annual increments in salary provided in the schedule but increases resulting from an upgrading of the salary

¹⁰ These studies are published as *Research Bulletins*, usually issued in April of the school year studied. Also, the division publishes the details of salary schedules for urban school systems in the fall of each odd-numbered year.

scale itself. What future trends in teachers' salaries will be cannot be predicted, but it seems evident that the economic position of the teacher in relation to other professional workers and employees in business and industry will improve, regardless of whether general economic conditions

TABLE 3

Trends in Median Salaries of Junior High School and High School Teachers, Urban School Systems, 1930-1931 and 1956-1957

POPULATION OF SCHOOL DISTRICT	MEDIAN SALARIES PAID IN		PER CENT OF INCREASE
	1930-31	1956-57	
<i>I. Districts 500,000 and over population</i>			
Junior high school teachers	\$2,694	\$5,565	106.6
High school teachers	3,061	6,326	106.7
<i>II. Districts 100,000 to 500,000 population</i>			
Junior high school teachers	2,124	4,522	112.9
High school teachers	2,412	5,028	108.5
<i>III. Districts 30,000 to 100,000 population</i>			
Junior high school teachers	1,860	4,783	157.2
High school teachers	2,111	5,135	143.2
<i>IV. Districts 10,000 to 30,000 population</i>			
Junior high school teachers	1,619	4,540	180.4
High school teachers	1,876	4,866	159.4
<i>V. Districts 5,000 to 10,000 population</i>			
Junior high school teachers	1,494	4,282	186.6
High school teachers	1,692	4,496	165.7
<i>VI. Districts 2,500 to 5,000 population</i>			
Junior high school teachers	1,360	3,875	184.9
High school teachers	1,547	4,297	177.8

Source: National Education Association, Research Division, *Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1956-57*, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXXV, No. 2, April, 1957, Tables 2-4, 6-8.

of the country expand, recede, or remain relatively constant. A number of well-financed school systems have recently adopted salary schedules that provide top salaries of \$9,000 to \$10,000 for teachers with master's degrees. And very likely before young teachers reach these maximums some years hence, the schedules will have been revised upward several more times.

Teachers must keep in mind, however, that salaries vary rather widely, even among school systems in cities of about the same population. For example, the NEA survey showed that salaries of individual high

school teachers ranged from \$2,300 to \$9,099 simply in districts over 500,000 population.¹¹

In recent years considerable attention has been given to merit pay plans for teachers. In such salary schedules, advancement up the salary scale to the maximum is not automatic, but dependent on selection based on teaching success. The schemes vary in their provisions, but in general such plans enable teachers who are rated by some appropriate administrative official or committee as being superior to advance to higher levels of pay than would otherwise be possible under the automatic schedule. Merit pay plans have received some support among lay citizens, boards of education, and school administrators, but little support among classroom teachers and their professional organizations. An NEA survey and analysis of the plans showed that most of those developed in earlier efforts to establish merit pay had been abandoned within a few years.¹² However, a number of school systems are still interested in finding ways of rewarding teachers who are acknowledged to be superior, and they are experimenting with various approaches to salary schedules that give recognition for outstanding success in the classroom.

The trend upward in teachers' salaries has enhanced the status of the profession, but additional increases should occur to keep teaching in a favorable position among the professions. It has never been one of the better paid professional groups,¹³ but it should retain a good relative position in salary if young people are to be expected to enter its ranks in sufficient numbers to avoid shortages that would be catastrophic to society. Teaching will always attract many young people who treasure the opportunity to work with boys and girls and who enjoy teaching, but relatively higher salaries will induce more persons who would be excellent teachers to join the profession.

OTHER ADVANTAGES OF TEACHING

Teachers enjoy a number of other benefits and privileges which make the profession an attractive one. Of those of a tangible nature, the following seem most important:

Provisions for retirement allowances. All states now have some plan that enables teachers to retire on a pension or allowance when they have fulfilled specified requirements, such as age and years of service in the

¹¹ National Education Association, Research Division, *Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1956-57, Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXXV, No. 2, April, 1957, Table 9.

¹² "Merit Salary Schedules for Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 8:126-197 (June, 1957), special issue.

¹³ Beardsley Ruml and Sidney G. Tickton, *Teaching Salaries Then and Now* (Bulletin No. 1; New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1955).

state. Since 1954 the social security program of the federal government has been available to teachers in those states in which the legislature authorizes participation and teachers vote as a group to join. A number of states have accepted the plan.

Permanent tenure. A large part of the teachers in the United States are employed in school systems in which they attain permanent tenure after serving satisfactorily during a probationary period. This means that a teacher cannot be dismissed except for causes specified by law, and then only on the basis of valid evidence presented in a hearing open to the teacher.

Leave of absence. Most school systems provide for sick leave; leaves may also be granted in many schools for professional duties of an approved nature; and maternity leaves are also granted in many instances. Some systems also grant leaves for advanced study, travel, and exchange teacher positions in foreign countries.

Vacation periods. A teacher has from twelve to sixteen weeks of vacation in a year, and they occur at very propitious times—the holiday seasons, the spring of the year, and the summer period. Although it may be argued that teachers are not paid for these periods, yet salaries are usually regarded as annual salaries, and are compared with the salaries of other workers on that basis. Moreover, many teachers prefer to have the summer months free for travel, study, and recreational activities even though it may result in less annual income.

Assured employment for successful teachers. As pointed out previously in this chapter, teaching is an expanding profession with indications that it will continue to expand in the decades ahead, just as it has for the past century or more. Secondary school teachers who are successful in their work are fairly sure of employment, particularly those who hold positions in school systems with permanent tenure, but the statement also applies generally to those employed in other systems. Layoffs and dismissals of teachers seldom occur as a result of business recessions or shifts in the public's demands for goods and services, as may be true in other occupations. The successful teacher may be reasonably sure of continued employment throughout his professional career.

Pleasant working conditions. Most secondary school teachers enjoy relatively pleasant working conditions. Many are assigned to new, modern buildings, and in most schools the surroundings are attractive and conducive to good work.

Among some of the more intangible privileges enjoyed by secondary school teachers are the following:

Opportunity to guide the development of young adolescents. This is indeed the outstanding factor in making teaching such a challenging and stimulating profession.



Most School Systems Provide Pleasant Working Conditions for Teachers. Illustrated is the teachers' lounge in a large, new senior high school building. (Courtesy of the Garden City, New York, Senior High School.)

Creative nature of teaching. Teaching is creative. It is an intellectual pursuit that provides an opportunity for the teacher to continue to grow in professional skill and knowledge.

Association with congenial co-workers. Teachers constitute a selected group of highly trained professional workers. One's associates are interesting and worth-while people, a fine group with whom to work.

Membership in a respected profession. Usually the teacher is a highly respected person in the community, and he holds a position of trust and responsibility fully recognized by parents and citizens generally.

The Education of Teachers for the Secondary Schools

Teaching is a highly skilled profession, and preparation for teaching in the secondary school should be broad, thorough, and comprehensive in scope.

The program of preparation for teaching should include the following elements:

Cultural and liberal education
Subject specialization
Professional training

CULTURAL AND LIBERAL EDUCATION

Every educated person should have a broad, basic understanding of the culture of the social group and should have developed a fundamental system of values that have their roots in the traditions and social experience of the race. But it is particularly important that teachers should have acquired such a cultural and liberalizing education, for it is they who have major responsibilities for instructing the young and for inducting them into the value and cultural systems of the society.

The purpose of a liberal education is epitomized in the oft-quoted statement made by John Stuart Mill in his inaugural address as rector of St. Andrews University in Scotland in 1867:

Men are men before they are lawyers, or physicians, or merchants, or manufacturers; and if you make them capable and sensible men, they will make themselves capable and sensible lawyers and physicians. What professional men should carry away with them from an university, is not professional knowledge, but that which should direct the use of professional knowledge, and bring the light of general culture to illuminate the technicalities of a special pursuit.¹⁴

One of the principal functions of a sound liberal education, or general education, as it is often called, is to develop the individual as a person so that he has formulated for himself and will continue to refine a broad and fundamental system of values that enable him to relate properly the demands of everyday life, evaluate soundly possible courses of action in given situations, and pursue wisely those acts of behavior that promise to contribute most to the happiness and welfare of all concerned. Wise decision making and sound choices of courses of action require knowledge, an ability to perceive the relevancy of facts and conditions, a facility in gathering valid evidence, skill in thinking through logically to a solution of a problem, and a willingness to evaluate results in terms of proved values. Values must square with the basic historical traditions of Western civilization. Liberal education of the proper kind should provide these qualifications for decision making and the exercise of discerning judgment.¹⁵

¹⁴ Quoted in Stanley J. Curtis and M. E. A. Boultonwood, *A Short History of Educational Ideas* (London: University Tutorial Press Ltd., 1953), p. 401.

¹⁵ An interesting discussion of the place of the liberal arts in educating business executives, relevant to the education of teachers, is to be found in Frederic E. Pamp, "Liberal Arts as Training for Business," *Harvard Business Review*, 33:42-50 (May-June, 1955).

Probably the best way to state the functions and purposes of general education (which many consider to be broader in definition than liberal education) is to define the basic competencies required for effective living in today's world:

1. To be able to act on the basis of a well-defined and deliberately chosen set of values, standards, principles of behavior, and moral codes that exemplify fully the basic principles and beliefs of our society.
2. To be able to use the methods of creative intelligence in solving life's problems.
3. To be able to understand the world about one, in its varied manifestations of the physical world, the cultural factors, the social, political, and economic conditions of the times, and the beliefs and traditions of the peoples of the world.
4. To be able to use effectively the skills of communication, computation, reading, generalizing, data gathering, and prediction.
5. To be able to discern between the important and the unimportant in terms of cultural values, democratic beliefs, and the well-being of one's fellow men.
6. To be able to maintain good mental and physical health so that one may participate in the affairs of daily living with equanimity, confidence, security, and vigor.
7. To be able to exercise effectively one's responsibilities as a citizen of his community, his state, his nation, his world.
8. To be able to participate satisfactorily in the life of one's family group.
9. To be able to work efficiently and competently in one's vocation.
10. To be able to establish mutually satisfactory relationships with one's associates, friends, and neighbors.
11. To be able to express oneself creatively.
12. To be able to enjoy living.
13. To be able to direct one's own efforts and utilize his own talents in a full realization of his potentialities and capabilities for personal self-satisfaction and contribution to the welfare of mankind.

Colleges use a variety of plans for offering the general-education aspects of teacher education. In many colleges it constitutes, as an area of study, one third or more of the total college program. If we accept the point of view that what we really want for teachers is the development of personal competencies of the kinds listed, it becomes apparent that these may be attained in a number of ways. Certainly a thorough study of appropriate subjects in the liberal arts is desirable; but courses that provide insights into man's activities and experience in facing the prob-

lems of life are also needed. Professional courses should contribute significantly to the refinement and development of such competencies, as should many of the activities comprising the student life of a college. The aim of general education is the proper development of the individual; the subject matter and methods used should be those that promise most in the attainment of this objective.

Prospective secondary school teachers should set as one goal for their undergraduate study the development to the highest degree possible of the competencies expected of an educated person. College studies should be carefully planned in terms of this objective; participation in student life should be fostered so that experience may be gained in applying knowledge to life activities; and professional activities should yield more than mere acquisition of the techniques of one's profession. But these values are attained only as they are deliberately sought.

SPECIALIZATION IN A TEACHING FIELD

Those who teach in the secondary school should have had extensive college work in one or more areas of the school curriculum so that they possess the knowledge and understanding of a field of study essential for skillful teaching. The teacher must be a scholar in his own right, thoroughly educated in the principles, concepts, techniques, methodology, and factual information of his field of specialization. If he is to stimulate the minds of young people, to guide them in the acquisition of skill, knowledge, insight, and understanding, as well as in the methods of scholarly endeavor, obviously, he himself should be highly proficient in his chosen field of study and have a deep appreciation and understanding of its contribution to human development and cultural advancement.

Generally, teachers should plan to specialize in two fields of the high school curriculum. Not only does this specialization provide a breadth of scholarship and intellectual attainment; it enables the teacher to obtain employment more readily or to have a wider choice of positions, since many schools assign a teacher to more than one subject field. Usually, the student designates one field as the major subject field, and the second as the minor field. College placement officers and personnel directors have information showing the relative demands for teachers in the various fields of teaching and the particular combinations of majors and minors that are most valuable in terms of job opportunities.

Those preparing to teach in the secondary school should not overlook opportunities in the junior high school, which is emerging as an educational institution with a distinct purpose and program of its own, and particularly in core or unified-studies programs, which are being developed much more commonly in the junior high school today. Specialized training for administrative and supervisory positions in the

secondary school is usually restricted to the graduate level. Teachers interested in such positions as principal, supervisor, coordinator of instruction, department head, counselor, director, and the like must first prove themselves to be skilled teachers who can work with boys and girls in a highly satisfactory teacher-pupil relationship.

Colleges of teacher education utilize a variety of plans to provide work in the areas of teaching specialization.¹⁶ Course work in the major and minor fields usually comprises from 40 to 60 per cent or more of the total undergraduate program. Most educators believe that the prospective teacher should become highly proficient in at least the major area of teaching specialization, with college study culminating in courses at the advanced level that require a high level of scholarship and understanding. Work in the area of subject specialization should also contribute significantly to the attainment of the objectives of general education listed previously, so that general education and subject specialization are not disparate but, rather, two aspects of an integrated program of study.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Just as other professional workers—the doctor, the dentist, the lawyer, the architect, the minister, the nurse—need special training in the specific responsibilities encountered in their jobs, so the teacher needs courses, observations, demonstrations, laboratory experience, and clinical work in the responsibilities he carries as a teacher. The primary professional duties of a secondary school teacher consist of planning learning experiences for pupils enrolled in his classes and participating in activities under his sponsorship, guiding the development of these experiences with pupils, and working cooperatively with other teachers and citizens for the improvement of the educational program for boys and girls. Professional preparation in teacher education, therefore, should provide teachers with the knowledge, understanding, insights, skills, concepts, and attitudes that will enable them to work at maximum levels of proficiency in fulfilling these professional obligations.

The professional phase of teacher education usually consists of about a fifth to a fourth of the student's total preservice program. It should include work in these fields:

1. The historical and philosophical foundations of education
2. The purposes and objectives of the school
3. The nature of human growth and of adolescent development
4. The psychology of learning

¹⁶ See Florence B. Stratemeyer, "The Academic Fields in Teacher Education," in Donald P. Cottrell (ed.), *Teacher Education for a Free People* (Oneonta, N.Y.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), pp. 84-144.

5. The principles of education
6. Techniques of management of the classroom situation
7. Methods of teaching
8. Curriculum planning in the secondary school
9. The use of materials of instruction
10. The evaluation of pupil growth and development in attaining the desired goals of education
11. The guided development of learning experiences with pupils in a variety of situations
12. Participation with other teachers and citizens in the improvement of the school and the community

Teachers may acquire these professional competencies through their college course work, participation in the activities of classes and student activities in actual school situations, observation of pupils at work in the school, participation in the activities of community groups of all sorts, and experiences in actually teaching pupils under supervision. Teaching is a highly skilled profession, and preparation should be commensurate with the demands made on teachers.

Professional preparation is provided in many ways in colleges of teacher education.¹⁷ Many institutions are experimenting with new approaches to teacher education, and students in teacher education will find the program generally to be stimulating and challenging.

Certification of Teachers

Teachers, like members of other professions, must be licensed by the state. All forty-nine states, the District of Columbia, and the territorial jurisdictions of Hawaii and Puerto Rico require teachers to obtain licenses before they are eligible to teach in the public schools. In some of the states the same requirements apply to teachers in private and parochial schools.

PURPOSES OF CERTIFICATION

By requiring a certificate to teach in the public schools, the state is seeking primarily to protect children and to promote their welfare. Certification fulfills this purpose by

requiring a person to attain prescribed levels of preparation to be eligible to teach;

enabling the state to prohibit those from teaching who have not taken

¹⁷ See Florence B. Stratemeyer, "The Professional Sequence in Teacher Education" and "Relating the Several Parts of the Teacher-Education Program" and Donald M. Sharpe, "Professional Laboratory Experiences" in Cottrell, *op. cit.*, p. 145-272.

- prescribed courses of preparation or do not possess the qualifications deemed essential by the state for teaching;
- providing a means whereby those who prove to be unfit for teaching or who commit acts that may have a deleterious influence on pupils may be eliminated legally from the classroom;
- prescribing conditions that must be fulfilled in order to remain qualified to teach;
- providing a legal basis for the enforcement of professional ethics and standards of conduct; and
- granting professional status to teachers by legal procedures comparable to those prevailing for other professions.

Essentially, then, the state certifies teachers to assure that they possess the characteristics and competencies deemed desirable in those who will teach the children and youth of the state. This is one of the procedures by which the people, through their agencies of state government, exercise surveillance over the schools to assure that they fulfill the functions envisioned by the citizens as proper and desirable.

CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

Requirements for a certificate vary from state to state, although some general patterns of preparation are evident. We will summarize here briefly the types of requirements for certification of secondary school teachers. Since it is not feasible to list the requirements of each state—moreover, states are constantly revising them—the teacher who is interested in the requirements of specific states should consult the current editions of two manuals available on the subject.¹⁸ In the following analysis of requirements for certification, only those specified for a regular teaching certificate are included. All of the states have procedures whereby they may issue an “emergency” or temporary certificate to teachers who do not fulfill the requirements for a regular credential, but these certificates are only valid for a limited period of time, usually one year, and may be used only in specified situations where school authorities have been unable to employ a regularly certified teacher. These substandard certificates are issued to legalize the employment of unqualified teachers when fully qualified teachers are not available.

Amount of college work. All of the states and territories except Arkansas require at least a bachelor's degree as minimum preparation

¹⁸ W. Earl Armstrong and T. M. Stinnett, *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States* (Washington, D.C.: The National Education Association). Published biennially in the odd-numbered years.

Robert C. Woellner and M. Auville Wood, *Requirements for Certification* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press). Published annually.

for obtaining a regular secondary school certificate. Arizona, California, New York, and the District of Columbia require the teacher to have a bachelor's degree plus an additional year of college work to be eligible for a regular license; Oregon and Washington require the teacher to complete a fifth year of preparation before the expiration of the initial certificate in order to obtain a regular certificate thereafter. Since 1958 New York has issued a provisional certificate to properly qualified holders of bachelor's degrees, but the teacher must complete the fifth year of college preparation to obtain a new license. Connecticut and Kentucky provide that the certificate based only on the bachelor's degree is provisional and they require five years of work for the "standard" certificate.

In some states, teachers may teach in the junior high school on either an elementary or a secondary school certificate, or they may be required to obtain a special credential. This enables teachers in some states to teach at that level of secondary education without a degree, for elementary school certification in some states still requires less preparation than does certification for teaching in the secondary school.

General education. A number of states specify, either by state law or by regulations of the state department of education, the minimum amount of college work that must be taken in courses constituting the general-education program. Some even list specific courses that must be taken, such as English or American history. In other states the determination of the general-education program is vested solely in the college, the state certifying whomever the college recommends, provided the applicant meets other requirements specified by the state. To illustrate practice, California requires forty semester hours of general-education courses, including at least six hours in each of the areas of science and mathematics, the practical and fine arts, social studies, and the communicative arts; Louisiana specifies forty-six semester hours, of which at least three but not more than six must be in United States history; Nebraska lists no requirements in general education, but the applicant for a certificate must be recommended by an approved teacher-education institution, and hence the college has sole responsibility for the determination of the program of general education.

Subject-matter specialization. In the subject areas, more than half of the states specify by law or regulation the minimum number of college hours and some of the courses an applicant must have completed in order to have a subject field listed on the certificate as one in which the teacher is qualified. In some of these states, teachers may teach only in those fields thus endorsed on the certificate. In fourteen states, where blanket certification is used in at least the academic fields, the certificate carries no subject endorsements; however, adequacy of subject-matter preparation

is determined through state accreditation policies and other types of regulations, so that for all practical purposes, either to conform to the law or to meet accreditation requirements, teachers must have a minimum amount of college work in the subjects they teach. Moreover, the college exercises further control over the amount and nature of subject preparation in those states in which a college must recommend the candidate for certification. Beyond minimum requirements imposed by the state, local school officials impose their own standards, selecting those teachers whom they consider to be adequately prepared for specific positions, everything considered.

In those states listing minimum standards, requirements vary considerably from state to state and among teaching fields in a state. Ohio, for example, requires forty-five semester hours in the social studies major but only eighteen in mathematics; and the teacher must be prepared in at least three subject areas with a minimum of fifteen semester hours in each.

Professional education. All states require work in professional education for certification. Requirements vary from twelve semester hours in four states to twenty-four hours in seven states and twenty-seven hours in one state. Usually the requirement is between sixteen and twenty hours. Student teaching is prescribed in all but two states, and many states list additional courses that must be included in the pattern of work. Effective July, 1958, Virginia made certain exceptions to this requirement. The regular "Collegiate Professional" certificate, a ten-year renewable certificate, requires fifteen hours of professional education, including four to six semester hours of student teaching. However, graduates of accredited colleges or universities who have met the requirements for general education and for specific subject areas may be issued a four-year nonrenewable certificate. After the teacher has completed two years of successful teaching experience, the student teaching requirement may be waived, and the "Collegiate Professional" certificate may be issued on the basis of nine semester hours of professional education. This requirement may be further modified in the discretion of the state superintendent of public instruction upon recommendation of the local superintendent of schools.

Special requirements. Many of the states have special requirements for certification. More than half require the applicant to be a citizen of this country or to have taken out first papers for citizenship; a health certificate is often required; and in many states an oath of loyalty must be taken. Some states require the applicant to have taken a course or to pass an examination in American history, history of the state, school law of the state, the constitution, or health education, but a number of the

states not having a specific requirement of this type include such courses as a part of the requirement in general education, thus accomplishing the same objective.

Temporary or special permits. Because of the shortage of qualified teachers most states have established procedures for issuing temporary certificates to persons who possess certain qualifications for teaching, but who may fail to meet some of the requirements for regular certificates. Usually these are valid only for the year for which they are issued.

Special permits are also issued under certain conditions for teachers in technical fields, such as vocational subjects.

Renewal of the teaching certificate. In all states except Massachusetts, the initial certificate is valid for only a specified number of years, usually from two to ten. Such certificates, however, may be renewed or the teacher may obtain a higher grade of certificate by taking additional college work. In some states the teacher must have had successful teaching experience to obtain the next grade of certificate. Many states issue permanent certificates to those secondary school teachers who fulfill specified requirements, such as a master's degree, successful teaching experience, and the like.

States have the authority to revoke the certificate of teachers under certain conditions, such as conviction of a felony or moral turpitude.

Professional Organizations for Teachers

A teacher is a member of a large and influential profession. One of the earmarks of a profession is the "tendency toward self-organization."¹⁹ Teachers have many professional organizations, planned to serve the professional interests and needs of the members. A teacher will undoubtedly want to become a member of one or more of these groups, not only so that he may contribute to the advancement of the profession but may benefit from close association with like-minded co-workers.

FUNCTIONS SERVED BY PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION

Professional organizations for teachers generally serve one or more of these functions:

- To work for the improvement of the schools and education generally
- To promote the welfare of teachers
- To advance the professional knowledge and ability of teachers
- To foster professional status and prestige

¹⁹ Morris L. Cogan, "The Problem of Defining a Profession," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 297:105-111 (January, 1955).

- To contribute to the formulation and clarification of objectives for education, a philosophy of education, and plans for the education of children and youth
- To make studies, carry on projects and experiments, and conduct research that will contribute to the advancement of educational theory and practice
- To provide services for the members of the organization

TYPES OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

For convenience of discussion the professional organizations that serve teachers may be classified into these general types:

1. General membership. Organizations that serve the interests of all educators, regardless of position or duties:
 - a. National: National Education Association and American Federation of Teachers
 - b. State: Examples—The California Teachers Association, The Illinois Education Association
 - c. Local: Examples—The Lincoln Teachers Association, The Fayette County Education Association, The Public School Teachers Association
2. Specialized membership. Organizations that promote the interests of specialized groups:
 - a. School level: Examples—The High School Teachers Association, The Association for Childhood Education, Department of Higher Education
 - b. Area of instruction: Examples—National Council of Teachers of English, National Science Teachers Association, Music Educators' Association
 - c. Professional duties: Examples—National Association of Secondary School Principals, Department of Classroom Teachers, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction

The purposes, activities, and program of the more than five hundred educational organizations cannot be described here, but the two general organizations of national scope will be touched on briefly, and the nature of the activities of other organizations will be noted. An illustration of the program of a professional organization is given in Chapter 5.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION (NEA)

The National Education Association is the oldest and by far the largest of our general organizations of teachers. It was founded in 1857 by 43 educators as the National Teachers' Association; by the year of its centennial celebration (1957) it had enrolled over 700,000 members.

Growth of the new organization, however, was slow throughout the first few decades of its history. From its original membership of 43 it had increased to only 170 by 1870.²⁰ In that year the name was changed to National Educational Association, and in 1906 the organization was chartered by Congress under the present name. Membership fluctuated greatly over the years, reaching a total of 8,466 in 1917. In that year the association established permanent headquarters in Washington, D.C., and appointed a full-time, permanent executive secretary. The spectacular growth of the NEA has taken place since those events. The membership rose to 216,188 by 1930 and to 453,797 by 1950.

The National Education Association has always wielded great influence in American education, and over the years the leading educators of the nation have been active on its committees and commissions and have participated in its conferences. Its greatest contributions to education in this country over the years reside in the direction it has given to the development of the American public school and in the role it has played in the advancement of the welfare of teachers.²¹ Those influential committees of educators that formulated a philosophy for the struggling American high school during the period of rapid expansion (see Chapter 4) were appointed by the NEA and functioned under its direction. This interest of its officers in secondary education has continued over the years, and many of its present departments are vitally concerned with the program of secondary education in this country.

The organization has worked aggressively for legislation that it believed would promote public education in this country. Not only does the NEA present testimony to Congressional committees and lobby on behalf of bills embodying legislation favored by the NEA, but it works with state and local associations to promote desirable legislation at those levels of school control. Legislation most vigorously promoted by the NEA at the national level relates to financial aid to public schools by the federal government and adequate financial support for the United States Office of Education; at the state level it has worked with state groups to promote teacher welfare through the enactment of laws that have provided retirement plans for teachers, tenure for successful teachers, and similar benefits as well as more adequate levels of financial support for the schools.

One of the most significant aspects of the program of the NEA is the work of the Educational Policies Commission. This agency was created in 1935 by the NEA and the American Association of School Administrators, one of its own departments, to formulate policy for

²⁰ Edgar B. Wesley, *NEA: The First Hundred Years* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 397.

²¹ *Ibid.*, Chaps. 6 and 28.

American education. The commission has issued a number of statements on the purposes and function of education in our American democracy and on desirable policies and practices for public education. The commission is composed of about twenty educators who serve voluntarily as a policy-making group. An executive secretary directs its work. President Eisenhower, while president of Columbia University, served as a member of the commission.

A number of departments of the NEA are directly concerned with secondary education in one way or another. These are

- American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation
- American Industrial Arts Association
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
- Department of Home Economics
- Department of Vocational Education
- Music Educators National Conference
- National Art Education Association
- National Association of Journalism Directors
- National Council for the Social Studies
- National Association of Secondary School Principals
- National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
- National Science Teachers Association
- Speech Association of America
- United Business Education Association

Most of these specialized groups of educators maintain a secretarial staff in the headquarters building of the NEA. Each group has its own organization and budget, but it works closely with the parent organization in matters of common interest to teachers. The departments provide services of great value to the classroom teacher and the administrator. Their purpose is to promote sound educational practices in the teaching of their particular subjects, in administering the schools, or in planning the curriculum. Each group publishes a journal and most of them issue yearbooks, reports, and the like. The teacher will find that the department for his particular area of teaching specialization will contribute greatly to his professional understanding and competency.²²

The importance of the NEA as an educational organization is attested by the tribute paid by President Eisenhower on the occasion of the Centennial Celebration Banquet of the organization on April 4, 1957:

And for the work the National Education Association has done to promote the goals of popular education, I am happy to express on behalf of the citizens of the United States the appreciation of all.²³

²² Wesley, *op. cit.*, Chap. 24.

²³ *NEA News*, Vol. XI, No. 8, April 5, 1957.

THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS (AFT)

The federation was organized in 1916 and became an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor in the same year, but its origins date back to 1897, when the Chicago Teachers Federation was formed.²⁴ In 1902 this group joined the local labor unit in Chicago, and thus became a part of the American labor movement. Between 1902 and 1916, twenty local unions of teachers in ten states became affiliated with labor groups. Some did not survive, but eight locals joined together in 1916 to form the federation. Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, enthusiastically welcomed the new union into the national labor organization and promised its support.

But opposition to organized labor was strong in many American cities, and doubly so for the newborn teachers' union. Boards of education, backed by business interests, refused to recognize the union and even dismissed teachers who joined it. The American Federation of Teachers lost more than half of its membership by 1920. The strenuous efforts made in most localities to eradicate the new organization succeeded in some places.²⁵

However, the organization has had a rather constant if slow growth since World War II. By 1956 it had enrolled 50,535 members, but the federation itself admits that this represents a gain of only 8,661 members in a decade. Thus the group is not a significant factor in professional organizations except in some of the larger cities of the country.

Unionization of teachers has been a highly controversial matter, with large segments of the teaching profession itself opposed to affiliation with organized labor.²⁶ The hierarchy of local, state, and national professional associations, heading up in the National Education Association, has retained overwhelming superiority, not only in numbers but in prestige and influence, and has strenuously opposed the idea of teachers becoming a part of the labor movement. The increased strength and the programs of these professional groups have made it difficult for the AFT to gain much headway in many local school systems or states. Where both organizations are strong, friction, rivalry, and bitterness between the two groups often produce a disunity within the profession that results in

²⁴ American Federation of Teachers, *The Commission on Educational Reconstruction, Organizing the Teaching Profession* (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955), Chap. 1.

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ Many issues relating to teacher unionization are discussed in Myron Lieberman, *Education as a Profession* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), Chap. 10.

harm to the schools and to the children themselves. On the other hand, many educators would agree that the program and activities of the AFT have resulted in major advances for public education in this country, particularly with reference to the welfare of teachers. Moreover, the activities and program of the AFT in behalf of teachers has often prompted the traditional, prestigious professional organizations, including the NEA itself, to become more aggressive in promoting the welfare of the schools and of teachers.

Affiliation with organized labor is a loose arrangement, the AFT remaining free to determine its own program and policies, without dictation from central labor councils.²⁷ But in local situations it usually has the support of other labor groups and of central city labor councils in its activities on behalf of teachers, particularly in welfare matters. In situations in which members of labor unions are elected to the board of education, it is evident that the teachers' union is in a strong position to be heard and to wield influence over board decisions because of its affiliations.

Although it is generally recognized in most states, by statute or court decision, that teachers have the right to form organizations, both professional associations and labor unions, certain restrictions prevail in some states and local school systems.²⁸ Collective bargaining for salaries on the part of teachers is a difficult matter, since a board of education is a legal body and its actions are matters of public record.²⁹ Salaries of all teachers are set by boards of education, which often consider recommendations of local teachers' associations and unions, where such exist.

The right to strike is usually denied teachers, either by statute, court decision, or the absence of legislation permitting such action by public employees. The American Federation of Teachers opposes the strike. Its executive council in 1951 adopted the following statement of policy:

The use of the strike is rejected as an instrument of policy of the American Federation of Teachers. The Executive Council and its national officers will not call a strike either nationally or in any local area or jurisdiction, nor in any way advise a local to strike.³⁰

Nevertheless, 93 strikes of teachers were reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics between 1940 and 1954; only 43 involved locals affiliated

²⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁸ National Education Association, Research Division, "Public-School Teachers and Collective Bargaining" (Special Memo.; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1956); "Teachers and Collective Bargaining: An Analysis of Legal Issues," *Research Bulletin*, 36:46-49 (April, 1958).

²⁹ *Ibid.*; Lieberman, *op. cit.*, Chap. 11.

³⁰ American Federation of Teachers, *op. cit.*, p. 272.

with the American Federation of Labor or the Congress of Industrial Organizations.³¹

The federation publishes a monthly journal, *The American Teacher Magazine*, and a monthly news periodical, *The American Teacher*; it also issues reports and special studies from time to time.

WORKING WITH PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The secondary school teacher who wishes to be truly professional will want to join appropriate teachers' organizations, contribute to their activities and programs, and provide leadership of the proper kind in the local unit of the parent organization. Not only do such efforts enhance the entire profession, the teacher himself will receive many benefits of a professional nature from participation in such organizations. Just as members of other professions work to advance their interests, he has a responsibility to his colleagues to advance the profession of teaching, but as a public servant devoted to the education of children and youth. The teacher should accept the responsibility to speak on behalf of children on matters of vital importance to their development and education. No one else occupies the unique position of the teacher, nor does any other organized group have the breadth of understanding and insight into the needs, problems, and potentialities of children and youth; as teachers we would indeed be untrue to our profession if we do not work for the best interests of all the children of all the people. We can best do this through our professional organizations of one kind and another.

Each teacher will need to decide for himself what organizations offer the most promise for (1) enhancing the profession of teaching, (2) improving the educational program provided children and youth, (3) advancing the best interests of teachers, (4) promoting the welfare of children and youth, (5) increasing the professional competency of its members, and (6) providing desirable services for teachers. He should then, of course, join such associations.

In general, most secondary school teachers join a general local teachers' association, the state association, and the NEA,³² although in most of the larger cities the AFT has locals which enroll a considerable number of classroom teachers.³³ Secondary school teachers should join the specialized group that brings together teachers in a common area of specialization, such as teachers of English, mathematics, physical educa-

³¹ Myron Lieberman, "Teachers' Strikes: An Analysis of Issues," *Harvard Educational Review*, 26:39-70 (Winter, 1957).

³² National Education Association, Research Division, *The Status of the American Public-School Teacher*, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, 1957, Table 32.

³³ Lieberman, *Education as a Profession*, p. 302.

tion, home economics, guidance, core, and the like. Membership is usually taken in the national association of such a group, and if a local or state branch exists, membership in such units is automatic. Younger teachers will find the publications and conferences of their respective groups invaluable in helping them to develop greater professional competency. Since many teachers will wish to join several specialized groups, the additional ones might well be concerned with areas of professional service other than their teaching fields.

Of course, professional organizations will have little to offer teachers unless they themselves assume roles of leadership in the groups to which they belong. Teachers should expect to serve on committees, accept office, contribute to publications, attend conferences, and participate in the formulation of plans and policies. Services of these types augment the professional skill of the teacher as well as advance the program of the organization.

Professional Growth on the Job

As is true of other professions, teachers must continue to study and engage in stimulating self-development programs if they are to keep abreast of advancements in the skills of teaching and to be informed about developments, research, experimentation, and promising practices under way in the secondary schools. Students preparing to teach should recognize that they have not attained the peak of their proficiency upon completion of the program of studies leading to initial certification. Continued growth in service is essential if one is to become a leader in the profession.

Teachers may continue to develop their professional competency in several ways:

1. *Advanced study in either the field of subject-matter specialization or professional education or both.* All states but one require teachers to take additional college work to renew their certificates, which are issued initially for a limited period of time. A large percentage of secondary school teachers earn a master's degree, and in recent years an increasing number obtain the doctor's degree.³⁴ Graduate study, unquestionably, constitutes the most extensively used and significant method of improving one's professional competency.

2. *Participation in in-service education programs offered by the local school system.* Most school systems hold workshops, conferences, institutes, or other types of professional meetings as a part of their in-service educa-

³⁴ National Education Association, Research Division, *The Status of the American Public-School Teacher*, Table 9, and Michigan Council of State College Presidents, *op. cit.*, p. 71.

tion program. Staff meetings also contribute to growth, particularly those devoted to professional topics. Regular college classes may be offered in out-of-school hours through arrangements with teacher-education institutions. In-service study groups may be organized, and many other provisions may be made locally.

3. *Participation in building- or system-wide committee activities.* Most school systems create a number of committees or planning councils to study school problems or to prepare reports and curriculum guides for use in the schools. Sharing in such activities provides good opportunities for professional growth.

4. *Active service in professional associations.* As was pointed out previously, this is an effective method of raising one's professional sights and understandings.

5. *Self-growth.* Teachers should seek to develop as fully as possible those personal attributes that make them interesting and worth-while persons, and leaders in their profession. Reading, attending concerts and the theater, carrying on creative work, and participating in interesting leisure-time activities are all methods of enhancing one's personality.

6. *Travel and other activities that broaden one's knowledge of the world and develop keener insights into the culture of America and the world.*

7. *Self-evaluation.* A teacher should continuously evaluate his own work with pupils, and critically examine his own professional stature.

Teaching is indeed a challenging but a most enjoyable calling, and the person who accepts his responsibilities seriously will find it yields a measure of self-satisfaction probably unequaled in any other occupation.

For Further Study

The American Federation of Teachers, Commission on Educational Reconstruction. *Organizing the Teaching Profession*. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955.

A history of the American Federation of Teachers with emphasis on the work of local units in promoting the welfare of teachers.

Anderson, Earl W. *Teaching as a Career*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1955: No. 2. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955.

A brief bulletin on the work of a teacher, requirements for certification, and methods of obtaining employment.

Armstrong, W. Earl, and T. M. Stinnett. *A Manual on Certification Requirements For School Personnel in the United States*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1957.

A comprehensive analysis of teacher certification requirements in each state and territorial jurisdiction. Issued biennially.

The Association for Student Teaching. *Improving Instruction in Professional Education*. Thirty-seventh Yearbook. Cedar Falls, Ia.: The Association, 1958.

Chapter VII is a thoughtful discussion of changes that should be made in teacher education in the years ahead.

Cottrell, Donald P., ed. *Teacher Education for a Free People*. Oneonta, N.Y.: The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1956.

An excellent treatment of the problems, issues, and practices in the education of teachers.

Educational Policies Commission. *Professional Organizations in American Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1957.

A statement on the place and function of professional organization for teachers.

The Fund for the Advancement of Education. *Teachers for Tomorrow*. New York: The Fund, 1955.

A study of teacher supply and demand, and of the conditions for attracting and holding able people in the profession, with supporting data.

Haskew, Laurence D. *This Is Teaching*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1956.

An introductory text on teaching as a profession. Discusses the job of the teacher, his duties and responsibilities, and acquaints him with the framework of the school system. One chapter deals with the teaching profession.

Huggett, Albert J., and T. M. Stinnett. *Professional Problems of Teachers*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956.

Discusses several major problems of the teaching profession, particularly the reasons teachers leave the profession.

Kearney, Nolan C. *A Teacher's Professional Guide*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958.

An excellent book on the profession of teaching and on the work of the teacher in a modern school system.

Lieberman, Myron. *Education as a Profession*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956.

A comprehensive study of teaching as a profession. Evaluates the work of the NEA and the AFT, and has an excellent chapter on the economic status of the teacher.

Magnuson, Henry, and others. *California's Teachers: Their Professional Qualifications, Experience, and the Size of Their Classes, 1956-57*. California State De-

partment of Education Bulletin, Vol. XXVII, No. 10, October, 1958. Sacramento: The Department, 1958.

A comprehensive study of teachers in one of our most populous states.

Mason, Ward S. *The Beginning Teacher*. U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 510. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958.

A comprehensive survey of new teachers in the public school, with sections on their personal characteristics, education, experience, salary, work situation, and commitment to a teaching career.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School. "Exploring Improved Teaching Patterns," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Vol. XLIII, No. 243, January, 1959.

Reports a number of experiments carried on by secondary schools to improve the use made of teachers' time.

National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958.

This report of a conference of educators, members of learned societies, and representatives of national organizations is excellent source material on teacher education.

National Education Association, Research Division. *The Status of the American Public-School Teacher. Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, February, 1957. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1957.

A comprehensive survey of American teachers, including data on personal characteristics, preparation, experience, income, assignment, service in the community, and membership in organizations.

Ruml, Beardsley, and Sidney G. Tickton. *Teaching Salaries, Then and Now*. Bulletin No. 1. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1955.

A famous economist analyzes trends in teachers' salaries during a fifty-year period, and compares them with salaries paid in selected occupations.

Sharp, Louise D. ed. *Why Teach?* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1957.

More than one hundred prominent men and women offer their personal tribute to teachers and reveal the influence that great teachers have exerted in their lives.

Stiles, Lindley. *The Teacher's Role in American Society*. Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

A broad treatment of the position of the teacher in American life. Part I deals with the social origins of teachers.

Stout, Ruth A. "Selective Admissions and Retention Practices in Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 8:299-317 and 422-432 (September and December, 1957).

This is a brief report of an extensive study of methods and factors used in selecting undergraduates for admission to teacher-education programs.

Vander Werf, Lester S. *How to Evaluate Teachers and Teaching*. Rinehart Education Pamphlets. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1958.

An excellent presentation of criteria and methods useful in the evaluation of teaching and of the work of the teacher in the school.

Von Schlichten, Erwin W. "The Idea and Practice of Teacher Certification in the United States," and "Idea and Practice of a Fifth-Year Requirement for Teacher Certification," *Teachers College Record*, 59:411-426 and 60:41-53 (April and October, 1958).

The first article is an excellent analysis of the historical development of certification and the reasons for it; and the second, of the practice of requiring five years of preparation.

Wesley, Edgar B. *NEA: The First Hundred Years*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

The centennial history of the National Education Association.

Woodring, Paul. *New Directions in Teacher Education*. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957.

Although this publication is largely a report on experiments in teacher education that are subsidized by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, it also contains some comment on programs of teacher education.

2

The Secondary School Pupil

As we begin our study of the basic principles that characterize the education of youth in this country and the practices of the American secondary school system, we should reflect on the essential elements that enter into the educative process. Dewey stated the matter well when he pointed out more than a half century ago in formulating his own philosophy of education:

The fundamental factors in the educative process are an immature, undeveloped being; and certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult. The educative process is the due interaction of these forces. Such a conception of each in relation to the other as facilitates completest and freest interaction is the essence of educational theory.¹

Any analysis of educational practice and any formulation of educational principles must take account of these two components of the educative process. In this chapter we shall examine the characteristics of the boys and girls who constitute one of the two basic elements in education. It is essential that we understand youth so that we may plan appropriate and adequate programs of education for them. We as secondary school educators need to know something about the developmental patterns of boys and girls, their growth characteristics, their interests and concerns, their problems, their needs, their home and family situations, their values, their aspirations, and their concepts of themselves as persons. And in planning programs of secondary education, we need to know the extent to which they attend school, what proportion remains in school until completion of the program, what kinds of pupil drop out before completing the program, and what proportion goes on to higher levels.

¹ John Dewey, *The Child and the Curriculum* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1902), pp. 7-8. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

Furthermore, we need to know the number of boys and girls who enroll in our secondary school and the number who will seek admission in the years ahead.

Why is it important that secondary school educators understand fully the facts about youth? So that

proper and worthy goals for education may be formulated that take full account of pupils as one of the two basic factors in the educative process;

in choosing among all the worthy educational experiences that may be provided for pupils to achieve the goals of education those will be selected that are most meaningful, significant, and purposeful to the particular group of pupils engaging in the learning activities;

special provisions may be made for serving those unusual needs of pupils that come within the valid purview of the school; and

adequate staff and facilities may be provided for all adolescents who wish to enroll, not only at present but in future years.

In studying youth we can utilize a number of sources of data and information:

1. *The United States Census.* The census provides much helpful information and in this book we shall make considerable use of this source. Although the census is taken only once in each decade, the data are basic and invaluable in providing an insight into general conditions and trends.

2. *Biennial Survey of Education.* Each two years the United States Office of Education publishes data on education in this country. These statistics are useful in analyzing school enrollment, attendance, and the like. The statistics are collected for the odd-numbered school year. Because of the time it takes to collect and publish such information, the survey is usually not available until about two years later. However, estimates of enrollment and related items are issued at the beginning of each school year.

3. *Research Studies.* A large amount of research on many aspects of adolescent development and the characteristics of youth has been carried out. These studies are made by individual workers, institutes, official agencies, and organizations. It is sometimes difficult for the teacher to review many of them, published by agencies all over the country; hence he must often rely on summaries of studies or interpretative statements in textbooks and reference works.

4. *Studies and surveys of state and individual school systems.* All of the states gather statistics on education and most of them carry on research studies. Similarly, most school systems make studies of one sort or another. Many of these studies would be useful to the student of second-

ary education, but unfortunately it is often difficult for him to obtain copies even if he has heard about them.

5. *Individual study and observation.* Such methods of study are particularly useful in analyzing developmental characteristics, pupil needs and problems, and the like. Such methods of study are discussed more fully in Chapter 10.

Let us now summarize some of the important things we know about adolescents and about school enrollment and attendance.

The Youth of America

Since the secondary school includes the junior high school, grades 7 through 9, and the senior high school, grades 10 through 12, the appropriate age group to consider is twelve through seventeen. But we must recognize that the relationship between age and grade in secondary schools is not rigid. Even though we assume that six-year-olds are enrolled in the first grade, by the time pupils reach the seventh grade not all twelve-year-olds are in that grade. Some acceleration and considerable retardation have already occurred. The census shows, for example, that only about 38 per cent of those who were twelve when the census was taken on April 1 were enrolled in the seventh grade; 34 per cent were enrolled in the sixth grade; about 22 per cent were in even lower grades; and about 4 per cent were in the eighth grade. The median age of seventh-graders at the time the census was taken in April was 13 years and 2.2 months.² At the opening of school in September, seven months earlier, the median age of pupils enrolling in the seventh grade would have been about 12 years and 7 months. This means that a substantial part of the twelve-year-old group was enrolled in the sixth grade at the opening of the school year. Thus throughout the secondary school, grades 7 through 12, many pupils will be one or even two years older than the normal for this group. This means that in the twelfth grade we shall be working with many eighteen- and even nineteen- and twenty-year-olds. For present purposes, however, the usual practice in educational research will be followed; the age group twelve through seventeen will be regarded as the appropriate population for the secondary school.

COMPOSITION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL POPULATION

The number of births in this country has increased greatly since the close of World War II, as will be discussed in more detail later. This

² U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), Chap. c, Table 112.

sharp increase in potential secondary school population now confronts our schools. Early in the 1950's about 2,250,000 children reached secondary school age each year, then the number edged up to 2,750,000 after the middle of the decade, and now it is about 3,600,000 per year. Our youth population, twelve through seventeen, now comprises almost 10 per cent of the total population of this country.

The ratio of youth to the total population of this country has undergone a significant change in the last half century. In 1900, children and youth under twenty years of age constituted 44.4 per cent of the total population; in 1950 only 34.1 per cent. Conversely, in 1900 only 17.8 per cent of the population was forty-five years of age and over, but in 1950 the percentage was 28.4. In 1900, there were 862 children and adolescents under twenty years of age for every 1,000 adults between the ages of twenty and sixty-four, but in 1950 the ratio was only 591 to 1,000. This means, on one hand, that there are proportionately more adults now, so they should be better able to carry the financial load for educating youth; on the other hand it means that the young adults finishing school now must compete with a relatively larger group of older, more experienced workers for jobs and advancements.

Of further significance to educators is the fact that youth are not distributed among the states in the same proportion as is the adult population. Consequently, the task of supporting schools is not equally distributed in terms of load.

REGION	NUMBER OF YOUTH AGED 12-17
	PER 1,000 ADULTS AGED 20-64
Northeast	126
Northcentral	143
South	183
West	134

The adult population of the southern states needs to provide secondary schools for almost 50 per cent more youth proportionately than do the adults residing in the northeastern states.

In the country as a whole, among youth, boys slightly outnumber girls, although in the total adult population women slightly outnumber men. One in eight is a member of a nonwhite race. Most of them are Negro, although a small part are Indian, Japanese, or Chinese. The proportion of Negro youth in the age group twelve through seventeen is somewhat higher than the proportion of Negroes in the total population.

Some significant changes have taken place during the past half century in the urbanization of this country. We have long since ceased to be an agrarian culture, but the movement to urban areas has been an astounding phenomenon of American life. This shift in living condi-

tions has major significance for educational planning in this country. Only about 20 per cent of the youth in this country actually live on farms; another 22 to 25 per cent live in villages and small towns under 2,500 in population or in the open country, but not on farms. Between 55 and 60 per cent of them live in urban areas, that is, in cities over 2,500 in population or in the urbanized areas surrounding large cities. More-



Almost All Youth in America Enroll in Its Secondary Schools. Pupils attending our high schools represent a great range of abilities, interests, needs, socioeconomic statuses, aspirations, and motivational drives. (Courtesy of the Seattle Public Schools.)

over, about 40 per cent of our youth live in urban areas of 50,000 population or more, the other urbanites living in towns between 2,500 and 50,000 in population. One of every five youth in this country lives in a huge metropolitan area of 1,000,000 population or more. The tendency for our population to migrate to the city is further illustrated by the fact that slightly more than two thirds of our adult population, twenty years of age and over, live in urban areas of 2,500 population or more,

with the migration heaviest to the larger cities. This movement of the adult population from rural areas to the cities is a fact that secondary educators must take into account in planning programs of education for this country.³

MOBILITY OF THE YOUTH POPULATION

The moving about of the American people is, of course, a social phenomenon apparent to any of us. Teachers all know too well the problems involved when pupils change schools during the term. Census data give us considerable insight into this problem. Of the fourteen through seventeen age group, 81.9 per cent lived in the same house in March, 1956, as they did a year previously; but for the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old group the figure decreases to only 70.2 per cent.⁴

Many of the youth who moved during the year made only short moves. Keeping in mind that only 18.0 per cent of all youth between the ages of fourteen and seventeen moved at all, two thirds of those who moved, or 12.2 of the total age group, remained in the same county, which probably means in the same city or town. Many of these boys and girls who were enrolled in school probably remained in their same school. But 5.8 per cent of the fourteen through seventeen age group and 10.6 per cent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old group migrated to a different county, but more frequently than not remaining in the same state. From this it would seem probable that not more than one secondary school pupil in twenty will change schools during the year. Of course, some high schools are more seriously affected in this respect than others, such as those located in rapidly growing residential areas.

Another interesting aspect of population mobility is revealed by census figures which show the percentage of young people, aged ten through nineteen, who were born in the state in which they resided in 1950. The highest ratio of native-born was in the south central area of the United States (Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas). Almost 18 of every 20 children in this age group living in those states were born in their respective states. On the other hand, only about 11 of every 20 persons ten to nineteen years of age living in the Pacific region (Washington, Oregon, and California) were born in their state of residence. In the Rocky Mountain

³ These findings are based on the U.S. Census Reports, and estimates issued from time to time.

⁴ U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Mobility of the Population of the United States: March 1955 to 1956* (Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series P-20, No. 73; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, March 12, 1957), Table 3.

region, the percentage is 68.6. For the remainder of the United States about 17 of every 20 young persons aged ten through nineteen are living in the state in which they were born.

MARITAL STATUS OF YOUTH

Almost everyone is aware that a marked change in the age at which many young people marry has occurred in recent years. The percentage of young people twenty-one years of age who were married at the time of each decennial census is as follows:

YEAR	MARRIED	
	Males	Females
1950	29.0%	59.3%
1940	18.7	44.5
1930	19.7	45.2
1920	21.0	45.8
1910	16.2	43.5

It is estimated that in 1956, only 0.3 per cent of the males between the ages of fourteen and seventeen were married, but 6.1 per cent of the females in this age group were married; of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds, 8.2 per cent of the males were married, as were 32.9 per cent of the females. In the age group of twenty through twenty-four years, 50.4 per cent of the males were married, as were 69.7 per cent of the females.⁵ These percentages are somewhat higher than they were in 1950, a fact known to most educators. This increase in the marriage rates among young people has created some problems for secondary school educators, and has given rise to some important social issues.

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF YOUTH AND YOUNG ADULTS

Almost one boy in every four (23.0 per cent) aged sixteen and seventeen enrolled in school in 1950 was in the labor force, as defined in the census. The labor force includes any one who during the week preceding the taking of the census worked for pay, worked for at least fifteen hours a week without pay in the family business or on the family farm, was seeking work of either of these two types, or was a member of the armed forces. In terms of this definition 13.6 per cent of the boys in school aged fourteen and fifteen were also in the labor force, as were 30.0 per cent of all eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds. Many of the younger boys probably were newsboys, or did odd jobs. Some of the older youth were college

⁵ U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Marital Status and Family Status: March, 1956* (Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series P-20, No. 72; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, December 21, 1956), Table 1.

students. Employment, as defined here, was highest among farm youth and lowest among the youth who live in towns under 2,500 or in the country, but not on farms. Few girls under eighteen were in the labor force, although one girl in eight of the sixteen- and seventeen-year-old group fell in that classification. For the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds, 23.1 per cent were in that group.

Employment among youth not in school was, of course, much higher. Of such boys sixteen and seventeen years of age, 73.0 per cent were in the labor force, as were 86.8 per cent of those eighteen and nineteen years of age. One third of the girls (33.4 per cent) aged sixteen and seventeen and 52.4 per cent aged eighteen and nineteen were in the labor force in 1950.

Enrollment and Attendance in Secondary Schools

Now that some of the pertinent facts about the youth of this nation have been analyzed, we are ready to look at the secondary schools themselves to see to what extent youth enroll in school and continue on until graduation. Is secondary education in this country universal? Do all adolescents enter secondary school? How many of them graduate? Who drops out and why? How does enrollment in school now compare to that of earlier years? If secondary school teachers and administrators are to plan intelligently and adequately, they should have information on such problems. These are questions that will be considered in this section.

Figures for the entire nation will be presented here, but conclusions based on national data may be misleading when applied to a local situation; hence it is essential that the staff members of each school system collect and analyze carefully data on enrollment and continuance in school for their community so that appropriate plans may be made for the development of adequate programs of secondary education for a particular locality. Data presented in this chapter help to suggest a picture of the situation in general, and they should also suggest to secondary school workers some of the types of data that might well be obtained for the local school system as a basis for intelligent planning. The important question is, Are the secondary schools of your community educating all American youth?

NUMBER ENROLLED

During the school year 1957-1958, it is estimated that 14,540,000 pupils were enrolled in the secondary schools of this country, grades 7 through 12, public and private. For the past half century and longer, enrollments in secondary school have increased phenomenally. Table 4 gives the total number enrolled decennially from the school year 1899-

1900 to 1939-1940 and alternate years thereafter. Since 1900 enrollments in the junior high school grades have increased almost four fold, but it is in the upper grades of the secondary school that the gains have been enormous. More than fifteen times as many pupils were enrolled in the senior high school grades in 1957-1958 as in 1899-1900.

TABLE 4
*Enrollments in Secondary School Grades,
1899-1900 to 1957-1958*

YEAR	ENROLLMENTS	ENROLLMENTS	TOTAL
	IN GRADES 7, 8, 9 ^a	IN GRADES 10, 11, 12	
1957-1958 ^b	8,758,000	5,782,000	14,540,000
1955-1956	8,187,000	5,366,000	13,553,000
1953-1954	6,978,000	4,884,000	11,862,000
1951-1952	6,709,000	4,524,000	11,233,000
1949-1950	6,266,000	4,406,000	10,672,000
1947-1948	6,033,000	4,362,000	10,395,000
1945-1946	6,074,000	4,268,000	10,342,000
1943-1944	6,081,000	4,097,000	10,178,000
1941-1942	6,574,000	4,810,000	11,384,000
1939-1940	6,855,000	4,946,000	11,801,000
1929-1930	6,200,000	3,025,000	9,225,000
1919-1920	3,999,000	1,489,000	5,488,000
1909-1910	3,011,000	636,000	3,647,000
1899-1900	2,425,000	383,000	2,808,000

^a Adjusted to include last six years of schooling in states that maintained only an eleven-grade system during some of these years.

^b Based on estimates.

Note: In these data, all pupils enrolled in grades 7 and 8 are classified as part of the secondary school population even though these grades may be organized as a part of the elementary school. Distribution as to junior or senior high school levels for pupils enrolled in private and parochial schools and nonregular public schools is made in same ratio as pupils in regular public schools are distributed.

Source: U.S. Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems and Statistical Summary of Education*, for years listed (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office), except 1957-1958 figures based on "43 Million and More," *School Life*, 40:5-7 (October, 1957).

Roughly, the number enrolled in the upper division of the secondary school doubled each decade from 1900 to 1930, with an additional gain of over 60 per cent from 1930 to 1940. After reaching a peak in 1939-1940, enrollments dropped off considerably thereafter because of decreased birth rates in the 1930's and because of war conditions. But the number has been increasing in recent years and a new high in secondary

school enrollments will be set each year from now on for at least the foreseeable future, as will be discussed in a later section. All of the states maintained twelve-grade systems of schooling beginning in 1951-1952, but for earlier years the figures are adjusted to include grade 6 in those states that had only an eleven-grade system in any of those years.

The necessity of studying the local situation as a basis for sound planning is illustrated by these figures. Even though enrollments for the country as a whole declined over a million during the period from 1939-1940 to 1949-1950, some states actually gained pupils in the secondary schools. For example, enrollments in public secondary schools, grades 9 through 12, increased during that decade in California by 38,000 pupils, and in Florida by 19,000. Interestingly, a number of southern states show marked gains during this period. Enrollments in Alabama increased 24,000; in Georgia, 21,000; and in Tennessee, 12,000. But some states showed large losses in pupil population during the same period. New York, for example, enrolled 172,000 fewer pupils in 1949-1950 than it did ten years earlier; Pennsylvania dropped from 545,951 to 407,959; Illinois lost over 93,000 pupils.

Although total enrollments have increased for the country as a whole during the period since 1949-1950, five states—Georgia, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island—had fewer pupils enrolled in their public high schools in 1953-1954 than they did in 1949-1950. The rate of increase, as would be expected, varied greatly among the other states. If we were to study individual communities, we would find great variation in the rate of decline in the previous decade and of increase in the years since 1950. Boom towns, such as those located in the winter resort areas of Florida, Arizona, New Mexico, and California, or those in which a new industry or military base is built, have faced serious problems in providing enough facilities for secondary school pupils; other systems have vacant rooms or have converted secondary schools to elementary schools. Obviously, each community must study its own situation as a basis for planning.

TO WHAT EXTENT DO ADOLESCENTS ATTEND SCHOOL?

Even though high school enrollments have grown by leaps and bounds since 1900, we still do not have universal secondary education in this country. Two methods may be used to gain an insight into the universality of secondary school attendance. One method utilizes data on school attendance from the census, and the other uses school enrollments taken from the biennial surveys of education. Data from both sources will be used here, in order to give a complete picture.

Percentage attending school. Questions on school attendance have been included in the forms used by enumerators in taking the official

United States Census since 1900. Table 5 presents information from this source for the census years from 1900 to 1950 and also estimates based on a survey made in the fall of 1956. Until 1950 the census data did not classify the pupils by age according to the grade or even level of school attendance; hence the figures in Table 5 simply show the percentage of all youth who were enrolled in school, regardless of whether or not it was a secondary school.

TABLE 5
*Percentage of Youth Enrolled in School,
1900 to 1956*

AGE	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1956 ^a
12 years	79.8 ^b	89.8	93.2	97.1	95.5	95.9	99.2 ^c
13		88.8	92.5	96.5	94.8	95.9	
14		81.2	86.3	92.9	92.5	94.8	
15	41.8	68.3	72.9	84.7	87.6	91.4	96.9
16		50.6	50.8	66.3	76.2	80.9	
17		35.3	34.6	47.9	60.9	68.2	
18	11.7	22.6	21.7	30.7	36.4	39.8	78.4
19		14.4	13.8	19.8	20.9	24.7	
20		8.4	8.3	13.1	12.5	17.9	
21 to 24	d	d	d	5.9	5.1	11.8	12.8

^a Estimated.

^b Includes ages 10 to 14.

^c Includes ages 10 to 13.

^d Data not available.

Sources: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary, Chap. C, Table 110; *Population: 1900*, Pt. II, p. xciv (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953 and 1902), and *School Enrollment: October 1956* (Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series P-20, No. 74; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, April 30, 1957), Table B.

In the census a person was asked if he had attended school during a specified period. In 1900, the period was any time during the preceding calendar year; in 1910, 1920, and 1930 it was the period since the preceding September; in 1940 it was the period from March 1 until the census was taken, presumably in April; and in 1950 it was the period from February 1 until the census was taken in April. In the survey made in October, 1956, on which the estimates for that year are based, the person was asked if he had been enrolled in school at any time during the current school term or school year. Such figures may be slightly higher, especially in the older age groups, than they would have been in the following April, after some pupils had dropped out of school. Also,

the percentages may be a little higher than census figures would be because the 1956 survey excludes from the study institutional populations and members of the armed services. The data were not analyzed by individual years of age in 1900 and 1956; hence age levels are grouped for these years.

The figures show that during this entire period enrollment in school was nearly universal for twelve- and thirteen-year-olds. The difference in defining school attendance may account for the slight drop in the percentages for 1940 and 1950. The huge increase in high school attendance during this period is reflected in the ratio of fourteen- through seventeen-year-olds enrolled in school. According to the 1956 estimates, almost all fourteen- and fifteen-year-olds were attending school, although they may not have been attending a secondary school. Even three of every four boys and girls sixteen and seventeen years of age were attending school. Another interesting trend, revealed by the table, was the substantial increase since 1940 in the percentage of young adults who attended school. The 1956 study shows that the percentage of eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds enrolled in an educational institution of some sort also continued to edge up.

Attendance by grade level. Information on the grade in which pupils were enrolled was made available in the 1950 census. Table 6 gives this information for the adolescent age group. Most secondary school educators accept twelve to seventeen as the appropriate age group

TABLE 6
Percentage of Youth Enrolled in Various
Levels of School, 1950

AGE	NOT ENROLLED	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (7-9)	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL (10-12)	COLLEGE
12	4.1	53.2	40.5	0.2	
13	4.1	22.6	70.4	0.8	
14	5.2	10.9	76.4	5.6	
15	8.6	6.0	45.1	38.3	0.1
16	19.1	3.2	16.7	59.0	0.2
17	31.8	1.7	5.7	56.9	2.2
18	60.2	0.6	1.6	25.1	12.2
19	75.3	0.4	0.7	8.0	15.5
20	82.1	0.4	0.6	3.6	13.3
21-24	88.2	0.3	0.7	2.3	8.4

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), Chap. C, Tables 110 and 112.

for the secondary schools, grades 7-12. Thus at first glance, considerable retardation would be apparent from Table 6, but it must be remembered that the census is taken in April, so these pupils were generally seven to eight months younger when they entered their respective grades at the beginning of the school year. Nevertheless, the table shows that drop outs begin to be heavy when the youngsters reach sixteen. Almost one third

TABLE 7

Percentage of Persons 14 through 17 Years of Age Enrolled in School, October, 1956 and 1950, and April, 1940

DATE AND SEX	PER CENT ENROLLED, 14 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE		
	TOTAL	WHITE	NONWHITE
Total		All schools	
1956 (October)	88.2	89.2	81.2
1950 (October)	83.4	84.4	75.5
1940 (April)	79.3	80.7	68.2
Male			
1956 (October)	89.1	90.1	81.3
1950 (October)	84.4	85.0	79.3
1940 (April)	78.9	80.3	65.9
Female			
1956 (October)	87.3	88.2	81.1
1950 (October)	82.3	83.7	71.9
1940 (April)	79.7	80.9	70.4
		High School (Grades 9-12)	
1956 (October)	75.4	78.0	57.6
1950 (October)	68.6	71.6	45.6
1940 (April)	57.0	60.8	27.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census: *School Enrollment: October 1956* (Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series P-20, No. 74; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, April 30, 1957), Table E.

of the boys and girls who were between seventeen and eighteen in April, 1950 were not attending a regular school of any kind. Only two fifths of the eighteen-year-olds were attending school, although many of them may have already graduated from high school.

The 1956 survey of school attendance sheds some further light on this subject. Table 7 presents data on school attendance for all persons fourteen through seventeen years of age. The increase during this brief span of years in the percentage of youth of high school age who attended school at any level is highly significant. Particularly is this true of those

who attend the high school, grades 9 through 12. The increase in the proportion of nonwhites attending school has been the greatest.

Ratio of enrollment to population. In analyzing secondary school attendance, educators frequently compare enrollments in secondary schools with the total youth population of the appropriate age groups. Table 8 utilizes this method, showing the ratio between enrollment in

TABLE 8
Percentage Enrollment in Secondary Schools of Youth of
Appropriate Age Groups, 1900-1956

SCHOOL LEVEL	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1956 ^a
I. Junior High School (Grades 7, 8, 9) ^b							
Total Youth, Aged 12-14	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Enrolled in Public Schools	46.1	49.1	58.1	78.2	86.2	83.5	85.3
Enrolled in Private Schools	4.9	5.3	5.3	8.1	8.7	11.1	13.8
Total Enrolled in School	51.0	54.4	63.4	86.3	94.9	94.6	99.1
II. Senior High School (Grades 10, 11, 12)							
Total Youth, Aged 15-17	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Enrolled in Public Schools	6.3	9.7	23.1	39.9	62.7	62.3	68.1
Enrolled in Private Schools	2.1	2.1	3.1	3.6	4.9	7.6	9.4
Total Enrolled in School	8.4	11.8	26.2	43.5	67.6	69.9	77.5
III. Total Secondary School (Grades 7-12)							
Total Youth, Aged 12-17	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Enrolled in Public Schools	26.6	29.7	41.5	59.3	74.4	73.2	77.5
Enrolled in Private Schools	3.5	3.7	4.2	5.9	6.8	9.3	11.8
Total Enrolled in School	30.1	33.4	45.7	65.2	81.2	82.5	89.3

^a Based in part on estimates.

^b Sixth grade in a few states that had only an eleven-grade system in some of these years.

Sources: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Population*, Census of the United States for the years listed; estimates for 1956; U.S. Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems*, school enrollments for years listed (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office).

each level of the secondary school and the total population of the appropriate age group. To assure accuracy in interpretation it should be pointed out that this table does not show the percentage of each age group enrolled in the corresponding grade. That was shown for 1950 in Table 6. Rather, enrollment figures as reported by the United States

Office of Education are divided by the total number of youth of the appropriate age, as given in the census reports. Some pupils may have enrolled in more than one school, thus counting more than once. Inflation of the figures due to this fact is undoubtedly small. However, retardation does affect the figures. For example, Table 6 shows that in 1950 91.4 per cent of the fifteen-year-olds attended school, 80.9 of the sixteen-year-olds, and 68.2 per cent of the seventeen-year-olds. The weighted average for this group of pupils aged fifteen to seventeen who attended school is 80.2 per cent. Yet Table 8 shows that enrollment in grades 10-12 was only 69.9 per cent of that age group. Part of this difference is due, as explained previously, to the fact that enrollments are as of the end of the school year and population as of April of the census year, but our assignment of appropriate grade levels is based on the beginning of the school year. Thus, when we say that fourteen-year-olds should be in the ninth grade, we mean pupils who were fourteen in September of that year.

However, Table 8 is still very helpful to us in understanding the situation, for it shows reasonably well the number of youth who reached certain levels of schooling. For the earlier years of this century, Tables 5 and 8 taken together show much greater retardation of pupils than is true now. In 1910, for example, according to the United States Census, as shown in Table 5, 51.2 per cent of the fifteen- through seventeen-year-olds were attending school, yet the biennial survey of education shows (Table 8) that enrollment in grades 10 through 12 was only 11.8 per cent of the total population of this age group.

In spite of the limitations of the data, Table 8 nevertheless portrays even more vividly the tremendous expansion in secondary school attendance, as well as the extent to which youth now attend secondary school. In 1956, enrollment in the junior high school grades was estimated to be only 0.9 per cent less than the total population of the appropriate age. And enrollment in the senior high school grades was 77.5 per cent of the proper age group. In 1900 it was only 8.4 per cent, and even as recently as 1930 enrollment in grades 10 through 12 was less than half of the appropriate age population (43.5 per cent). The census figures for that year (Table 5), however, show that 66.3 per cent of the fifteen- through seventeen-year-old group were enrolled in school at some level. It seems quite obvious, therefore, that some of the increase in upper secondary school enrollments in the past two decades or so is due to a reduction in the rate of retardation, since the discrepancy between these two sets of the data in 1950 is not nearly as large.

These data, considered together, are inspiring, for in the United States the enrollments in the secondary schools in 1956 were equal to 89.3 per cent of all the potential youth population of that age group. No

other country in the world approaches such a universality of secondary education for all youth. Secondary school teachers and administrators indeed have a tremendous responsibility in providing for these millions of youth an education of maximum worth for each pupil enrolled.

Continuance of Pupils in Secondary School

Even though the great majority of youth are enrolled in school, and enrollment in the secondary school is a very high percentage of the youth population of the appropriate ages, the figures reveal that not all youth complete the program of secondary education. This section will present data on the amount of schooling which youth obtain and the extent to which they graduate from high school. An analysis of those youth who drop out prior to graduation will also be made.

HIGHEST LEVEL OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED

Insight into the extent to which youth complete the secondary school is provided by the 1950 census and surveys published since then in tabulations that show the highest grade of school completed. The grade levels attained by the population in 1950 are shown in Table 9 for all youth and young adults aged eighteen through twenty-four by each year of age and for the age group twenty-five through twenty-nine and all persons twenty-five years of age and over. If this table is used in conjunction with Table 6 we can obtain a good understanding of school attainments of our youth population.

Disregarding the eighteen-year-olds, since Table 6 shows that 39.8 per cent of them were still enrolled in school, and assuming that all persons who attended college were high school graduates, somewhat more than a half of the young people from nineteen through twenty-nine years of age in 1950 had completed high school. The median year of schooling was 12.1 grades for all of these age groups. Even though 9.1 per cent of those nineteen years of age in 1950 were still enrolled in elementary or secondary schools, 52.7 per cent had graduated from high school. Of the twenty-year-olds, 4.6 per cent of whom were still enrolled in the common schools, 54.2 per cent had completed high school.

The Current Population Survey conducted in March, 1957, gives us later, although less detailed, information on the level of schooling of the population. This information is presented in Table 10. The data show an almost astounding increase between the years 1950 and 1957 in the percentage of youth who had graduated from high school, a fact already indicated by Table 8. In 1950, 51.7 per cent of young adults from twenty-five through twenty-nine years of age had completed the twelfth grade;

in 1957 the figure was 59.7 per cent. In 1950, from 50.9 to 54.2 per cent of the population in the age groups between 20 and 24 years had graduated from high school; in 1957, 62.5 per cent of the entire age group had completed that level of schooling.

TABLE 9

*Percentage of Youth and Young Adults and All Persons
25 Years of Age and Over According to Highest
Levels of Schooling Completed, 1950*

LEVEL COMPLETED	AGE	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25-29	25 YEARS AND OVER
I. Elementary School Only										
Less than six grades		5.4	5.2	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.9	6.0	9.3	19.9
Six grades		2.7	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8		
II. Junior High School Only										
Less than three grades		13.1	12.7	13.4	14.0	14.5	14.4	14.2	15.4	27.0
All three grades (7-9)		8.0	7.1	6.9	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.2	6.4	5.9
III. Senior High School										
Less than three grades		31.6	17.9	15.2	14.9	15.2	16.1	16.7	15.0	11.0
Graduated (Grade 12)		33.2	39.1	36.9	35.4	33.7	32.4	32.7	34.2	20.2
IV. College										
Some college		4.1	13.3	16.5	15.6	13.7	12.4	11.1	10.0	7.2
Four years or more			0.3	0.8	2.6	4.9	6.3	7.1	7.5	6.0
Per cent completing high school		37.3	52.7	54.2	53.6	52.3	51.1	50.9	51.7	33.4
Median year of school completed		11.4	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	9.3

Note: Total does not equal 100 per cent: some did not report year of school completed.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), Chap. C, Tables 114 and 115.

If the 1957 survey is an accurate picture of the situation, and studies of reliability show that it is, and this trend to remain in school has continued since then, we can conclude that about two of every three young people today complete a secondary school program. This is almost unbelievable, certainly to those of us who remember the large numbers of youth who dropped out of secondary school in earlier years.

Even though we as Americans can take great pride in such an accomplishment, we must keep in mind that one youth in three still does not complete a high school education. In fact, according to the 1957 survey,

about one in six young persons had never gone beyond the elementary school, and about 20 per cent entered high school but did not complete the course. These figures are much higher for certain sections of the country, and, of course, lower for others. Data on this subject are not available for a more recent year than 1950, but an examination of figures for that year will illustrate the situation.

TABLE 10
Percentage of Youth and Young Adults and All Persons
25 Years of Age and Over According to Highest
Level of Schooling Completed, March, 1957

LEVEL COMPLETED	AGE 18 AND 19	20 TO 24	25 TO 29	25 YEARS AND OVER
I. Elementary School Only				
Four years or less	2.4	2.9	2.7	9.0
Five to seven years	5.1	5.9	7.2	12.8
Eight years	5.4	6.8	9.0	17.9
II. High School				
One to three years	34.9	21.0	20.5	17.7
Four years	42.6	41.5	39.2	26.0
III. College				
One to three years	8.9	16.3	10.2	7.3
Four years or more	0.2	4.7	10.3	7.5
Total completing high school	51.7	62.5	59.7	40.8
Median year of school completed	12.0	12.3	12.3	10.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Educational Attainment: March 1957* (Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series P-20, No. 77; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, December 27, 1957), Table 1.

VARIATION IN SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING

Table 11 gives the percentage of youth in each state twelve through seventeen years of age which was enrolled in school in 1950. The table also shows the median year of school completed by all nineteen-year-old youth in the state. In seventeen states, at least nine of ten youth of the appropriate age group were attending regular schools that offered work leading to a high school or college diploma or degree. This is certainly a remarkable showing. Western and midwestern states comprise most of this group, but Connecticut and New York in the east and Oklahoma in the southwest are also included. Except for the new state of Alaska, the low-ranking states are all southern states.

TABLE 11

*Percentage of Youth Aged 12-17 Enrolled in School and
Median Year of School Completed by Nineteen-Year-Olds, by States, 1950*

STATE	PER CENT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL	MEDIAN YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY 19-YEAR-OLDS	
		MALE	FEMALE
Utah	94.4	12.3	12.4
Oregon	93.7	12.2	12.3
California	93.0	12.2	12.3
Washington	92.7	11.8	12.3
Nevada	92.4	12.1	12.2
Wisconsin	92.4	12.2	12.4
Idaho	91.6	12.2	12.3
Michigan	91.6	12.1	12.3
Ohio	91.5	12.2	12.3
Montana	91.1	12.1	12.3
Connecticut	90.8	12.2	12.3
Iowa	90.7	12.3	12.4
Minnesota	90.6	12.2	12.4
Illinois	90.4	12.3	12.3
New York	90.2	12.2	12.3
Oklahoma	90.1	12.0	12.2
Indiana	90.0	12.2	12.2
Pennsylvania	89.9	12.2	12.3
Kansas	89.8	12.3	12.4
Massachusetts	89.7	12.2	12.4
New Hampshire	89.7	12.3	12.2
New Jersey	89.7	12.1	12.3
Nebraska	89.6	12.3	12.5
Wyoming	89.2	12.1	12.3
Colorado	88.5	12.1	12.3
Vermont	88.3	11.9	12.3
Florida	87.7	11.2	11.6
Maine	87.6	11.5	12.1
South Dakota	87.2	12.1	12.3
North Dakota	86.5	11.9	12.3
Rhode Island	86.3	11.9	12.2
Delaware	85.9	12.0	12.2
New Mexico	85.5	10.7	11.0
Maryland	85.4	11.3	12.0
Missouri	85.2	12.1	12.3
Louisiana	85.0	9.9	11.0

TABLE 11 (continued)

STATE	PER CENT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL	MEDIAN YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY 19-YEAR-OLDS	
		MALE	FEMALE
West Virginia	84.9	10.6	11.4
Arizona	84.4	10.9	11.2
North Carolina	84.4	10.0	11.1
Alabama	84.2	9.6	10.6
Texas	84.0	11.4	12.0
Virginia	84.0	10.5	11.5
Tennessee	83.6	10.0	10.7
Mississippi	83.5	9.6	10.1
Arkansas	83.4	9.9	10.9
Alaska	82.8	11.1	9.9
Georgia	81.5	9.3	10.6
South Carolina	80.0	9.1	10.0
Kentucky	77.2	9.5	10.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1952), Chap. C for each state, Tables 62 and 64, except Tables 36 and 38 for Alaska.

As is to be expected from these data, the extent of schooling also showed considerable variation. But in more than half of the states, over 50 per cent of the young people had completed more than twelve grades of school.

Even greater diversity in the extent to which youth are enrolled in school exists among large cities. Table 12 lists the ten highest and ten lowest ranking cities of 100,000 or more population in the percentage of sixteen-year-olds enrolled in school in 1950. The range is from 66.5 per cent in Fall River, to 97.4 per cent in Pasadena. Six of the ten top-ranking cities are in California and all except one are in states on the West Coast. Table 13 gives the median year of school completed in 1950 by all persons twenty-five through twenty-nine years of age in the highest and lowest ranking cities of 100,000 or more population. It reveals that in Berkeley half of the males of this age group had completed at least three years of college, while in New Bedford half of the males had completed less than two years of high school. It will be noted that a number of the high-ranking cities are seats of famous universities.

Tables 11, 12, and 13 are presented, not to discredit any state or city, but rather to illustrate some of the problems confronting educators. What factors stimulate and encourage a large part of the youth of a community

or even of a state to continue in the secondary school until completion of the program are difficult to determine. Educational attainments of parents may be of major significance; the appeal of the educational program offered to the boys and girls of the community is undoubtedly a factor; the aspiration levels of youth, as well as of their parents, may be

TABLE 12

Ten Highest and Ten Lowest Cities of 100,000 or More Population in Percentage of Sixteen-Year-Old Youth Enrolled in School, 1950

CITY	PER CENT OF 16-YEAR-OLDS ENROLLED
Pasadena, Calif.	97.4
Berkeley, Calif.	97.0
Long Beach, Calif.	95.8
Portland, Oreg.	95.7
Milwaukee, Wis.	94.6
Oakland, Calif.	94.6
Los Angeles, Calif.	94.2
Spokane, Wash.	94.1
Seattle, Wash.	94.0
San Francisco, Calif.	93.9
Dallas, Tex.	76.8
Louisville, Ky.	76.5
Norfolk, Va.	76.2
St. Louis, Mo.	74.3
Baltimore, Md.	73.9
Providence, R.I.	72.2
Atlanta, Ga.	70.6
New Bedford, Mass.	68.5
San Antonio, Tex.	68.3
Fall River, Mass.	66.5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), Chap. C, Table 179.

important; and the value systems, attitudes, and the actions of the child's peer group may influence his decision about continuing his schooling. These are matters that need further study. In any case, these data confirm again the importance of making a thorough study of the situation in each local school system to determine desirable courses of action in school planning.

TABLE 13

*Highest and Lowest Cities of 100,000 or More Population
in Median Level of School Completed
by Those 25-29 Years of Age, 1950*

CITY	MEDIAN YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED	
	MALE	FEMALE
Berkeley, Calif.	15.4	13.7
Austin, Tex.	14.0	12.3
Pasadena, Calif.	13.2	12.8
Cambridge, Mass.	12.9	12.5
Denver, Colo.	12.7	12.5
Minneapolis, Minn.	12.7	12.6
Seattle, Wash.	12.7	12.6
Los Angeles, Calif.	12.6	12.5
Portland, Ore.	12.6	12.5
Sacramento, Calif.	12.6	12.5
Tulsa, Okla.	12.6	12.5
Corpus Christi, Tex.	11.0	10.9
Newark, N.J.	11.0	11.3
St. Louis, Mo.	11.0	11.5
San Antonio, Tex.	11.0	11.0
Paterson, N.J.	10.9	11.1
Mobile, Ala.	10.7	11.6
Camden, N.J.	10.5	10.8
Baltimore, Md.	10.4	10.8
Savannah, Ga.	10.2	10.6
Chattanooga, Tenn.	10.0	10.5
Fall River, Mass.	10.0	10.0
New Bedford, Mass.	9.5	10.3

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II. *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. 1, U.S. Summary (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), Chap. C, Table 181.

STUDIES OF PUPIL WITHDRAWAL AND FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH DROPOUT

Many school systems have made studies of the extent to which pupils drop out of high school before completing the program, and the reasons for such withdrawals or the characteristics of the pupils who did withdraw. Several such investigations will be reviewed here, not only to present facts about pupil withdrawal but to illustrate methods used to study the matter.

Retention in large cities. A thorough and comprehensive study of withdrawal was made by school officials in fourteen large cities of over 200,000 population in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.⁶ A uniform method of pupil accounting was developed not only so that accurate and reliable data could be gathered but so that the results would be comparable for all fourteen systems. The study took account of all changes in the membership of the class under investigation—the class that entered the high schools of these cities as ninth-graders in the fall of 1951. Withdrawals were classified as involuntary and voluntary. The former constituted withdrawals for reasons over which the school presumably has little or no control—physical disability, uneducability, draft into the Armed Forces, death, institutionalization, or “whereabouts unknown.” Voluntary withdrawal included those who dropped out for reasons over which the school has some control, such as entering employment, being needed at home, enlisting in Armed Forces, marrying, dropping out without reason, or being unable to adjust. The study took account of pupils who transferred out of or into the school, and the base figure used to calculate rate of withdrawal was adjusted accordingly. Figure 2 shows the net effect of withdrawals on the class that entered the high schools of these fourteen cities as freshmen in September, 1951. This study covered between 150,000 and 200,000 pupils, including transfers in and out of the schools. Group B cities included New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia.

This study shows that in eleven large cities of 200,000 to 1,000,000 in population, 62.9 per cent of the pupils who entered the ninth grade in 1951, excluding transfers out of the school, were still in school by the end of the fourth year. In the three largest cities, 54.7 per cent remained by the end of the fourth year. The per cent in school at the end of each school year, by sex, is as follows:

YEAR	GROUP A CITIES (200,000 TO 1,000,000)			GROUP B CITIES (OVER 1,000,000)		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
End of						
First	91.9%	93.7%	92.8%	92.0%	94.8%	93.3%
Second	78.0	82.0	80.0	72.1	80.2	75.9
Third	66.9	71.6	69.3	57.9	68.0	62.6
Fourth	60.2	65.4	62.9	49.5	60.7	54.7

The high dropout rate of boys in the largest cities should be disturbing to educators. Less than half of the entering group of boys were still in school at the end of four years.

⁶ David Segel and Oscar J. Schwarm, *Retention in High Schools in Large Cities* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1957, No. 15; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957).

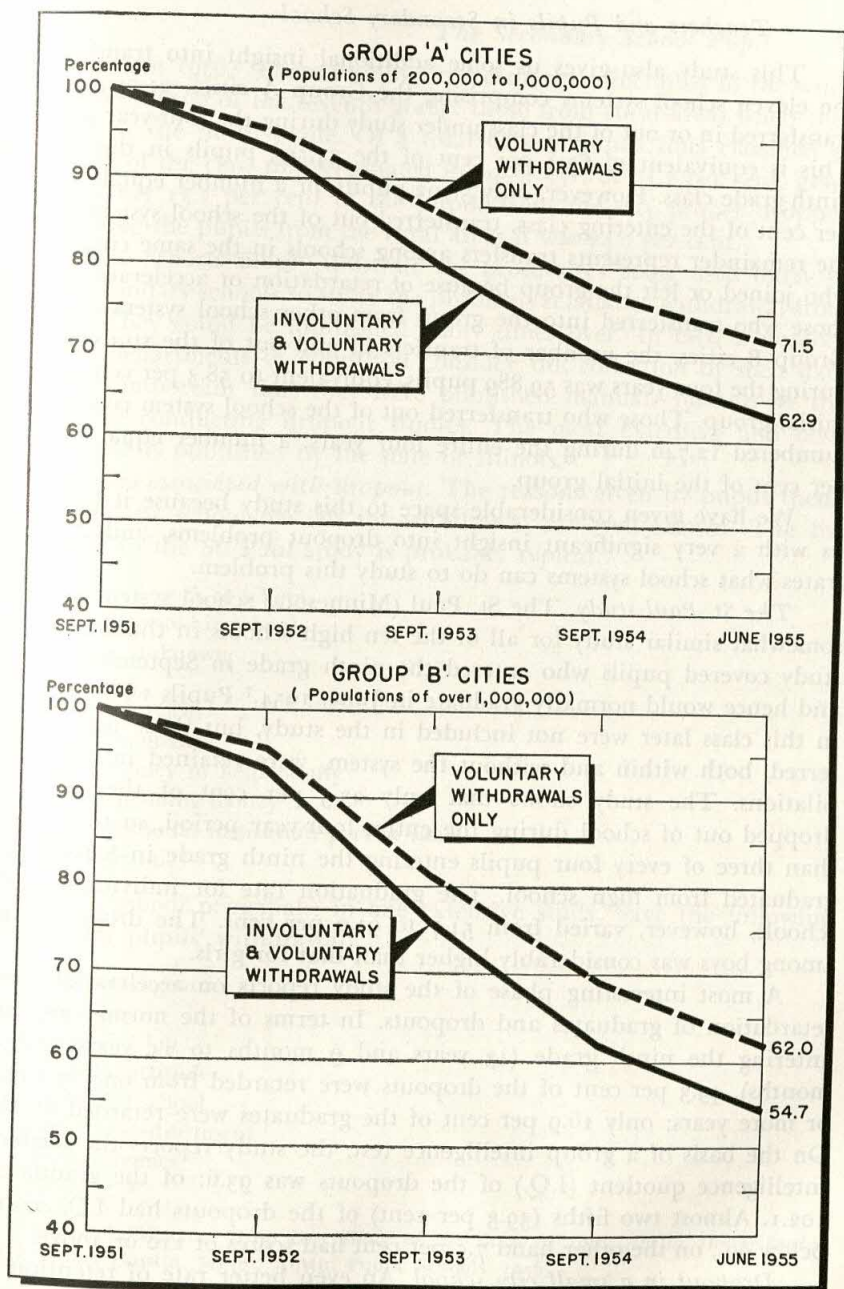


Figure 2. Decrease in Membership During a Four-Year Period Due to Involuntary and Voluntary Withdrawals, Fourteen Large City School Systems. (Source: David Segel and Oscar J. Schwarm, *Retention in High Schools in Large Cities.*)

This study also gives us some additional insight into transfer. In the eleven school systems comprising the Group A cities, 21,939 pupils transferred in or out of the class under study during the four-year period. This is equivalent to 63.4 per cent of the 34,593 pupils in the initial ninth-grade class. However, only 5,792 pupils, or a number equal to 16.7 per cent of the entering class, transferred out of the school system itself; the remainder represents transfers among schools in the same city, those who joined or left the group because of retardation or acceleration, and those who transferred into the group from other school systems. In the Group B cities, the number of transfers in and out of the study group during the four years was 59,889 pupils, equivalent to 58.3 per cent of the initial group. Those who transferred out of the school system completely numbered 12,740 during the entire four years, a number equal to 12.4 per cent of the initial group.

We have given considerable space to this study because it provides us with a very significant insight into dropout problems, and it illustrates what school systems can do to study this problem.

The St. Paul study. The St. Paul (Minnesota) school system made a somewhat similar study for all of the ten high schools in that city. The study covered pupils who entered the ninth grade in September, 1950, and hence would normally graduate in June, 1954.⁷ Pupils who enrolled in this class later were not included in the study, but those who transferred, both within and without the system, were retained in the compilations. The study shows that only 23.3 per cent of these pupils dropped out of school during the entire four-year period, so that more than three of every four pupils entering the ninth grade in Saint Paul graduated from high school. The graduation rate for individual high schools, however, varied from 51.7 to 91.0 per cent. The dropout rate among boys was considerably higher than that for girls.

A most interesting phase of the study reports on acceleration and retardation of graduates and dropouts. In terms of the normal age for entering the ninth grade (13 years and 9 months to 14 years and 8 months), 49.3 per cent of the dropouts were retarded from one to three or more years; only 16.9 per cent of the graduates were retarded at all. On the basis of a group intelligence test, the study reports the median intelligence quotient (I.Q.) of the dropouts was 93.6; of the graduates, 102.1. Almost two fifths (39.3 per cent) of the dropouts had I.Q. scores below 90, on the other hand 7.5 per cent had scores of 110 or above.

Dropout in a small city school. An even better rate of retention is shown in a study of a somewhat smaller school. The Austin (Minnesota) Junior-Senior High School made a study of dropouts in the class that

⁷ St. Paul Public Schools, *Dropout Study* (St. Paul: Office of Secondary and Vocational Education, St. Paul Public Schools, 1955).

graduated in 1956.⁸ Those residing in Austin were included in the study at the beginning of the seventh grade; those from rural areas when they entered at the ninth grade. Of a total of 417 pupils thus classified as members of the class that graduated in 1956, 351, or 84.2 per cent, graduated. Only 13.2 per cent of the pupils from the city proper dropped out; among the pupils from the rural areas it was 24.0 per cent.

These reports simply illustrate the procedures being used today in many secondary schools to study the problems related to withdrawal from school. They could be multiplied many times over. In fact, a number of state departments of education consider the collection of such data to be so important that they have published manuals for use by the schools in conducting dropout studies. The most extensive and best-known one is published by the state of Illinois.⁹

Factors associated with dropout. The reasons given by pupils themselves and by school officials for withdrawal are well known. The list compiled in the St. Paul study is probably typical:

- Preferred work to school
- Not interested in school
- Reason unknown
- Marriage
- Armed services
- Poor attendance
- Need money to help family
- Want spending money
- In correctional institution part of time
- Work permit ¹⁰

High school principals, in one extensive study, gave the following reasons for pupils' withdrawal:

- Low intelligence
- Retardation
- Lure of a job
- Parental attitude
- Dislike of school
- Social maladjustment
- Broken homes
- Absence ¹¹

⁸ Doron L. Warren, *Drop Out Study of the Class of 1956, Austin Junior-Senior High School* (Austin, Minn.: Austin Public Schools, 1956).

⁹ Charles M. Allen, *How to Conduct the Holding Power Study of the Illinois Curriculum Program* (rev. ed.; Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 23; Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1955).

¹⁰ St. Paul Public Schools, *op. cit.*

¹¹ New York State Education Department, *Drop Outs: The Cause and Cure* (Albany: The Department, 1954).



A Varied Program of Secondary Education Is Necessary to Serve the Basic Educational Needs of All Youth. An example of one aspect of such programs is illustrated by this class in machine shop practice. (Courtesy of the San Francisco Public Schools.)

One of the most significant studies of factors associated with withdrawal from secondary school was made in Oregon.¹² On the basis of his analysis of the high school records of pupils who dropped out prior to graduation, of the recorded observations of teachers of these pupils, and of interviews with the pupils themselves, Stuart lists these as the significant factors associated with dropout:

School records

- Tardiness (nine or more)
- Unexcused absences (three or more)
- I.Q. score of 90 or below
- Two years older than his grade group
- Failure of a required course
- Failure in English

Teachers' observations

- Easily discouraged
- Lack of initiative

¹² Brett Randall Stuart, "Factors in Voluntary Drop-Outs in Selected Public Secondary Schools in Oregon" (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Oregon, 1955).

- Lack of self-confidence
- Lack of interest in school
- Failure to participate in class
- Sullen in class
- Irresponsible in class
- Poor study habits
- Poor school spirit

Pupil's own responses

- Expression of disinterest in schoolwork
- Discussion relating to possible termination of school attendance
- Lack of encouragement to stay
- Expressed preference of work to school

Many high school staffs have established programs for the reduction of pupil withdrawals. The factors listed above serve as a means of locating potential dropouts. In an effort to hold in school those who could profit from its program, both counselors and teachers then take steps to work with the pupils who are exhibiting these tell-tale signals of incipient withdrawal. This does not necessitate the lowering of appropriate standards of work for other pupils; rather, it is a matter of endeavoring to put into practice our basic belief in equality of opportunity for all.

College Attendance by High School Graduates and the Manpower Problem

Teachers have always been interested in the fullest possible development of the abilities and capacities of their pupils. One of the primary functions of public education in this country is to contribute to the fullest possible realization of the potentials of each boy and girl. As secondary school teachers we are greatly concerned about the kinds of careers our graduates choose and the uses to which they put their talents. In recent years our concern has been shared by many government officials, leaders in industry and business, college professors, and the parents of graduates. This nation is in the midst of a serious manpower shortage in many socially critical areas, and citizens are looking to the schools to assist in correcting the situation. Let us explore this problem briefly. It merits more detailed study by the advanced student of education.

COLLEGE ATTENDANCE BY HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

Tables 9 and 10 give us information about college attendance of American youth. In 1950 about 18 per cent of youth of the normal age group had entered college: for the twenty-one-year-olds it was 18.2 per

cent; for the twenty-two-year-olds, 18.6; for the twenty-three-year-olds, 18.7; and for the twenty-four-year-olds, 18.2 per cent. Some of these persons who had not entered college might have done so later, but the percentage would probably not have been large. By 1957, the population survey of that date shows that slightly more than 20 per cent of all young adults, aged twenty through twenty-nine, had enrolled in college. In both tables, it will be noted that almost exactly one third of all high school graduates of a particular age group entered college. Attendance in college is defined by the Census Bureau as enrollment in an institution that would lead to a college, university, or professional degree; attendance may be full time or part time, day or night.

Several comprehensive studies of college attendance report about the same results. The Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training, in a very authoritative report published in 1954, for example, estimated that 20.2 per cent of the appropriate age group entered college.¹³ Three demographers from this commission, in another report, projected estimated enrollments to the year 1968-1969. They believe that the percentage of high school graduates entering college will not increase during this period, so that the ratio of high school graduates who will enroll in college will stabilize at about 35 per cent. But they do estimate that the percentage of youth who will graduate from high school will increase, reaching 70 per cent by 1968. Thus the ratio of youth in the total population who go to college, will, consequently, increase, approaching one fourth of the appropriate age group by that date.¹⁴

The Educational Testing Service, with the support of the National Science Foundation, made an extensive study of college plans and college enrollment among twelfth-graders in public high schools in 1955. The study included over 35,000 twelfth-grade students in 516 public schools located throughout the country. In a follow-up study of 6,369 graduates from 99 of these high schools in February, 1956, the Service found that 36.4 per cent of the boys and 27.4 per cent of the girls, or 31.8 per cent of the total group, had enrolled in college, either full time or part time.¹⁵

Four state-wide investigations of college attendance also provide

¹³ Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954), Table G-1.

¹⁴ Toby Oxtoby, Robert Mugge, and Dael Wolfe, "Enrollment and Graduation Trends: From Grade School to Ph.D.," *School and Society*, 76:225-231 (October 11, 1952).

¹⁵ Educational Testing Service, *Background Factors Relating to College Plans and Enrollment Among Public High School Students* (Princeton, N.J.: The Service, 1957), Chap. 3 and Table D-1.

valuable information on this subject. Daughtry¹⁶ made a study of college attendance among the high school graduates of 1955 in Kansas. His study included 613 of 649 public and private high schools in that state and reports were received on 19,349 graduates. Of this number, 40.4 per cent enrolled in a college or university the next fall. Another 6.0 per cent entered nurses' training or business and trade schools. Among male graduates, college enrollment was 46.3 per cent; for females it was 34.3 per cent. For high schools of over 475 enrollment, 50.1 per cent of their graduates enrolled in college the following fall; for high schools of 151 to 475 enrollment, the percentage was 37.0; for high schools of 61 to 150 enrollment it was 34.0; and for high schools of 60 pupils or less, college attendance was only 29.4 per cent.

A similar study was made in Kentucky for graduates in 1956.¹⁷ Of 22,575 graduates included in the study, 31.4 per cent enrolled in college the following fall. Attendance by graduates of white or integrated schools was 31.7 per cent and by graduates of Negro schools, 25.1 per cent.

A New Hampshire study also covered the 1956 graduates of the public and private secondary schools of that state.¹⁸ Thirty-seven per cent of the public high school graduates enrolled in four-year or junior colleges the next fall, as did 32 per cent of the graduates of the accredited private academies. Among graduates of public schools of 100 or less enrollment, only 19 per cent enrolled in a four-year college; for high schools of 101 to 300 enrollment, the figure was 22 per cent; and in high schools of over 300, it was 25 per cent.

Undoubtedly the most comprehensive study of college attendance by the high school graduates of a state was that completed in Wisconsin by the staff of the School of Education of the University of Wisconsin under a research grant from the United States Office of Education.¹⁹ The study included 34,151 graduates of Wisconsin high schools in the spring of 1957, or about 95 per cent of the number completing secondary school that year.

The study showed that "About one-half of Wisconsin's 1957 high school graduates were continuing to some type of education beyond high

¹⁶ Alex A. Daughtry, *A Report on the Post-Graduation Activities of the 1956 Kansas High School Graduates* (The Emporia State Research Studies, Vol. V, No. 2; Emporia, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1956).

¹⁷ Kentucky Council on Public Higher Education, *Kentucky High School Graduates Who Went to College: 1956* (Frankfort: The Council, 1957).

¹⁸ New Hampshire State Department of Education, *A Report on New Hampshire High School Graduates, Class of June 1956* (Concord: The Department, 1957).

¹⁹ J. Kenneth Little, *A State-Wide Inquiry into Decisions of Youth About Education Beyond High School* (Madison: School of Education, University of Wisconsin, September, 1958).

school." Relationships between college attendance and related background factors are about the same as those established in other studies, although this investigation showed that "The extent of the education of the parents appeared to have a stronger influence upon the decisions of their children than the occupation of the parent."

From these studies and from census data, we may reasonably conclude that about one third of all high school graduates enter college. This, then, becomes a major factor in planning the program and curriculum of the high school. Elsewhere this book discusses problems related to college admission and the integration of the educational program in high school and college, but here the emphasis is on the fact that the whole problem of preparing high school pupils for college has taken on new dimensions in the last two decades. As secondary education became universal in the first quarter of the twentieth century, only a small part of the student body was interested in or planned to attend college. Throughout the 1920's and 1930's in many schools not more than 10 to 20 per cent of the graduating class continued into college.

The educators of that day made much of the fact that they had to plan a program for all pupils, not just for the small proportion who entered college; today, educators must recognize that in many high schools, the college-bound group constitutes, in terms of future careers, the largest single component of the graduating class. In a very substantial proportion of the high schools throughout the country, more than half of the graduating class enters college—in many schools it is three fourths to nine tenths of the class. If one adds other types of educational agencies, such as schools of nursing, schools of cosmetology, business and trade schools, and the like, the percentage seeking advanced education becomes even higher. To repeat, the problem of properly relating high school and college, integrating their programs so as best to educate each child, is undoubtedly one of the major responsibilities facing educators today.

WHICH GRADUATES ATTEND COLLEGE?

The characteristics of high school graduates who enter college are now quite well established by numerous studies. Only the more important factors associated with college attendance will be reviewed here.

Academic ability. As is to be expected, graduates who rank highest on intelligence tests and school marks enter college in much greater proportion than do those of lower ranks. In its significant study, the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Study, utilizing data from the tests given by the military services during World War II to

over 10,000,000 service men, estimates the percentages of high school graduates of various intelligence levels who enter college to be as follows:

ARMY GENERAL CLASSIFICATION TEST SCORE	PER CENT OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES ENTERING COLLEGE
78-82	16.0
83-87	19.2
88-92	22.4
93-97	25.6
98-102	28.8
103-107	32.1
108-112	35.3
113-117	38.5
118-122	41.7
123-127	44.9
128-132	48.0
133-137	51.3
138-142	54.5
143-147	57.7
148-152	60.9
153-157	64.0
158-162	67.2
163—	70.4

The Educational Testing Service survey of high school graduates of 1955 gave the following results:

ABILITY GROUP	ENROLLED IN COLLEGE	
	BOYS	GIRLS
(Highest 10%)	(75)	(60)
Upper 30%	60	46
Middle 30%	36	26
Lower 40%	17	14

Sex. The data just listed point out another factor associated with college attendance: girls of equal ability levels do not enroll in as large a proportion as do boys. This fact is confirmed by other studies of college attendance.²⁰

Family background. The occupation of the father, the educational level attained by the parents, and the general cultural level of the family are all significantly related to college attendance. These factors influence college attendance of the children in two ways: the financial ability of

²⁰ President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. II, *Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1948), pp. 39-40.

the parents to send their children to college; and the influence of the general cultural and aspiration level of the family on college attendance. The Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training reports these relationships between occupation of the father and college attendance of the children:

FATHER'S OCCUPATION	PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES OF THESE PARENTS WHO ENTER COLLEGE
Professional and semiprofessional	67
Managerial	50
"White collar" (clerical, sales, service)	48
Farmer	24
Factory, craftsmen, unskilled, and the like	26

In addition, it must be kept in mind that the same general relationship holds true for high school graduation itself; hence the percentage of all youth whose parents fall in the "lower" occupational groups who enroll in college is even smaller than these figures indicate. The occupational level of the father is obviously a very important factor in determining college attendance.

The Educational Testing Service study shows that of the male graduates in the high-ability group (top 30 per cent) whose fathers had attended college 81 per cent enrolled in college, but of the male graduates of the same ability levels whose fathers had not attended college only 52 per cent entered.

Racial and religious factors. High school counselors and specialists in higher education know all too well that high school graduates who are members of nonwhite races do not attend college in the same proportion as do white graduates of the same ability levels. Family factors are also a part of this same situation. Members of certain minority religious groups also find barriers erected to college admission. Both of these problems were studied by the President's Commission on Higher Education.

Influence of high school friends and counseling. The study by the Educational Testing Service introduces two factors seldom considered before in analyzing factors associated with college attendance. It points out that graduates who stated that many of their close friends were also planning to attend college enrolled in college two or three times as frequently as did graduates of the same ability levels who stated that few of their friends planned to attend. Whether like attracts like in this case, or whether the influence of the peer group is a strong motivational factor is not known. Also, those graduates who reported that they dis-

cussed college attendance with teachers or a counselor were more apt to enroll than those who did not.

It is quite apparent that a whole syndrome of closely related factors affects college attendance. High school teachers should be informed on the subject so that they may work effectively in the high school in stimulating and encouraging pupils to enroll in college who have the potentialities of benefiting properly from it.

THE MANPOWER PROBLEM

Much has been written in recent years about the serious shortage of people trained for service in the professions and in highly specialized occupations. Chapter 1 discussed the need for more teachers, and numerous reports have pointed out the shortage of highly trained workers in the scientific and engineering fields and other professions.²¹ Here, the subject will be examined only briefly in relation to the work of the high school.

Our shortage of technical and professional manpower arises from three causes: (1) a huge increase in the demand for such personnel, partly due to the development of technology and of scientific advancement in modern life, partly due to the necessity of maintaining a proper competitive position with other nations of the world in the development of military weapons, and partly due to the rapid expansion in the population, who need and demand services provided by professional workers; (2) a disproportionately small group of young people entering the labor force at the present time, because of low birth rates during the depression years of the 1930's; ²² and (3) ineffectual use of persons who have talents and abilities to make significant contributions in the professional and scientific fields.

Discussion of the first of these conditions is outside the scope of this book, and no one can now alter the number of young people who are

²¹ Charles C. Cole, Jr., *Encouraging Scientific Talent* (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1956).

Educational Policies Commission, *Manpower and Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1956).

Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Congress of the United States, *Hearings before the Subcommittee on Research and Development* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), and *Engineering and Scientific Manpower in the United States, Western Europe and Soviet Russia* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956).

The President's Committee on Scientists and Engineers, *Second Interim Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: The Committee, 1957).

²² U.S. Department of Labor, *Our Manpower Future—1955-1965* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957).

coming into the labor force at the present time. Hence our attention will be focused on the third factor in the manpower shortage.

Even though college attendance, as pointed out previously, is amazingly high in this country, when compared with that in earlier decades or with that in other countries at the present time, the statistics show that a significant percentage of the more able high school graduates does not enter college at all, and other studies show that the proportion remaining until completion of a degree or a professional program is even much lower.²³ For example, the study by the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training showed that at least 30 per cent of the most brilliant high school graduates do not even enter college. For graduates in the ranges of ability still above the average the percentage of those entering college drops to as low as 35. This fact prompted a presidential commission to conclude:

Each year some 200,000 of the ablest young people fail to carry their education beyond high school due to lack of motivation, proper guidance or financial resources or to discriminatory barriers.²⁴

Cole²⁵ analyzes a large number of studies of attendance at college by superior students. Most of them confirm the general conclusion that from one third to one half of youth of high intellectual ability do not attend college, and that even a smaller number graduate from college. He presents data prepared for his report by Robert J. Havighurst that show that of every 100 boys in the top quarter of the population in intellectual ability, that is, with I.Q. scores of 110 or higher, 48 now enter college, but only 35 complete the college course, 42 finish high school but do not enter college, and 10 do not finish high school.

Although, of course, many able people who have never attended college can and do make significant contributions to American life, nevertheless this alarming failure of a large part of our capable young people to pursue a college course represents a serious loss in creative and productive talents to the American nation. Think of the many wonderful teachers we might gain for our schools if these able young people chose to go to a teacher-training college, or the numbers of talented and well-trained scientists, engineers, doctors, ministers, statesmen, writers, journalists, and professional workers we might gain to carry on the activities and affairs of this nation if only a large proportion of them could be motivated to attend college, and means could be found to assist those who needed financial support to complete the course.

²³ Robert E. Iffert, *Retention and Withdrawal of College Students* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1958, No. 1; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958).

²⁴ The President's Committee on Education beyond the High School, *Second Report to the President* (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 8.

²⁵ Cole, *op. cit.*, pp. 57-85.

All of the many commissions, committees, and individuals studying our manpower problems agree that we as a nation must take major steps to ameliorate the situation. The secondary school is the key to a solution: through planning an educational program that will enable and stimulate each pupil to develop his talents and potentialities to the fullest and that will encourage the capable to continue their formal education in the colleges and universities.²⁶

What of the future? Shall we continue to face serious manpower shortages or does the amazing change in birth rates that took place after World War II foretell the development of new problems?

Predicted Increases in Secondary School Enrollment

A stark reality facing all citizens generally who support our schools, as well as educators who must build, organize, and operate secondary schools for our youth, is the tremendous expansion that will occur in enrollments in the secondary schools, beginning in the late 1950's and extending into the foreseeable future. Some of the most significant problems of secondary school administration and policy inhere in this situation, and as teachers we should be fully informed about them. The starting point for analyzing future developments is the figures on births in this country.

INCREASE IN SCHOOL POTENTIALS

The number of babies born annually in the United States for the years from 1935 through 1958 is given in Table 14. Figure 3 presents these same data graphically, but adjusted higher to account for under-registration of births. These figures set the problem. In the 1930's, births averaged slightly less than 2,250,000 a year; by 1947, the number had increased by more than 1,250,000 annually, or to over 3,500,000. And by the last half of the 1950's, births reached the astounding figure of 4,000,000 or more annually, almost double the number born twenty years earlier.

The impact of this increase in births on the secondary schools may be illustrated by comparing the potential school population for the school years 1957-1958, 1964-1965, and 1969-1970. Recalling that the appropriate age group for the secondary school, grades 7 through 12, is youth aged twelve through seventeen, we see that the potential school population for the 1957-1958 school year, the sum of the number of births for 1940-1945 was 16,147,938, not considering mortality or net

²⁶ See especially Cole and the Educational Policies Commission for plans and recommendations.

TABLE 14

Registered Births in the United States, 1935-1958

YEAR	NUMBER	YEAR	NUMBER
1958	4,202,000 ^a	1946	3,288,672
1957	4,254,000 ^a	1945	2,735,456
1956	4,168,000 ^a	1944	2,794,800
1955	4,047,295	1943	2,934,860
1954	4,017,362	1942	2,808,996
1953	3,902,120	1941	2,513,427
1952	3,846,986	1940	2,360,399
1951	3,750,850	1939	2,265,588
1950	3,554,149	1938	2,286,962
1949	3,559,529	1937	2,203,337
1948	3,535,068	1936	2,144,790
1947	3,699,940	1935	2,155,105

^a Provisional.

Note: On the basis of sampling studies, the Bureau of Vital Statistics estimates that the actual number of births exceeds registered births by 2 per cent.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Vital Statistics of the United States* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office). Annual reports.

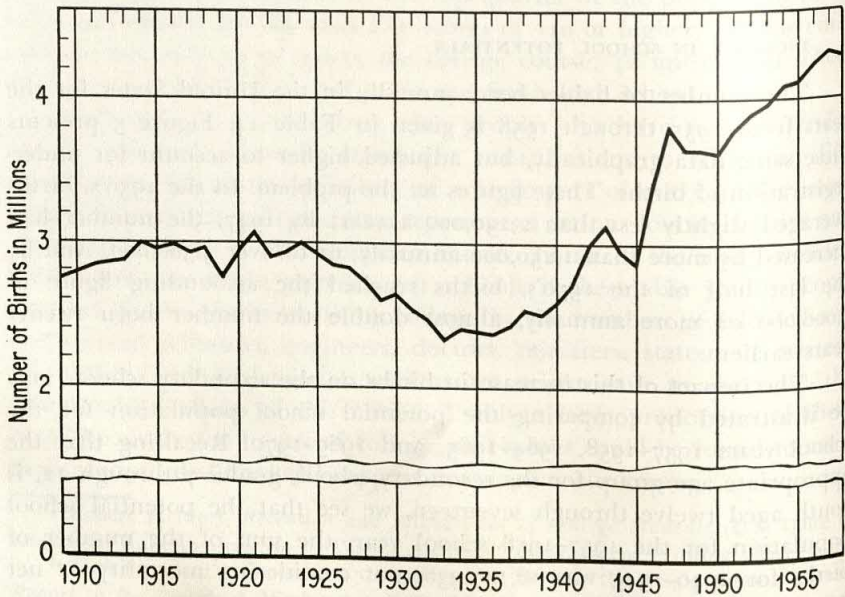


Figure 3. Number of Births, United States, 1909-1958. (Source: U.S. Public Health Service, *Health and Demography*.)

migration change. On the same basis, for the school year 1964-1965 the potential population is 21,946,522; and for 1969-1970 it is 24,235,763. In contrast, the potential school population for 1952-1953 was 13,416,181 youth.

PROJECTED ENROLLMENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

The United States Bureau of the Census has projected school enrollments to 1965, and the figures are startling in terms of the task ahead of the schools. Table 15 gives these figures. It should be noted that these

TABLE 15

Projected Enrollment in Secondary Schools, 1958-1965^a

YEAR	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 7-9)	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 10-12)	TOTAL (GRADES 7-12)
1958	7,888,000	6,156,000	14,044,000
1959	8,378,000	6,491,000	14,869,000
1960	9,043,000	6,689,000	15,732,000
1961	9,659,000	6,858,000	16,517,000
1962	9,894,000	7,386,000	17,280,000
1963	9,932,000	8,050,000	17,982,000
1964	10,126,000	8,550,000	18,676,000
1965	10,458,000	8,691,000	19,149,000

^a Based on an increase in attendance consistent with increases shown by the census since 1910.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Projections of School Enrollment in the United States* (Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 85; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, December 7, 1953).

predictions are based on children already born and hence should reveal rather accurately enrollments that will probably materialize. The Census Bureau bases its predictions on the assumption that the percentage of youth enrolling in school will increase at the same rate that has prevailed since 1910. Thus it estimates that enrollment of fourteen-year-olds will increase from 94.8 per cent of the total group in 1950 to 95.5 per cent in 1965, and that of seventeen-year-olds from 68.2 per cent to 75.0 per cent.

These figures show that enrollment in the junior high school grades (7-9) will increase from about 8,000,000 in 1958 to about 10,500,000 by 1965, a gain of 2,500,000, or 30 per cent. In the senior high school the gain will also amount to about 2,500,000, or 40 per cent. So,

within eight school years from 1958 to 1965, we shall need to provide for an additional 5,000,000 pupils, about as many as were enrolled in all the secondary schools in this country in 1920.

Figure 4 shows quite vividly the trends in enrollment in our secondary schools ever since 1900 and what is predicted up to 1970. This graph dramatically illustrates the situation. In this chart, as in all the data presented here, grades 7 and 8 are included as a part of the secondary

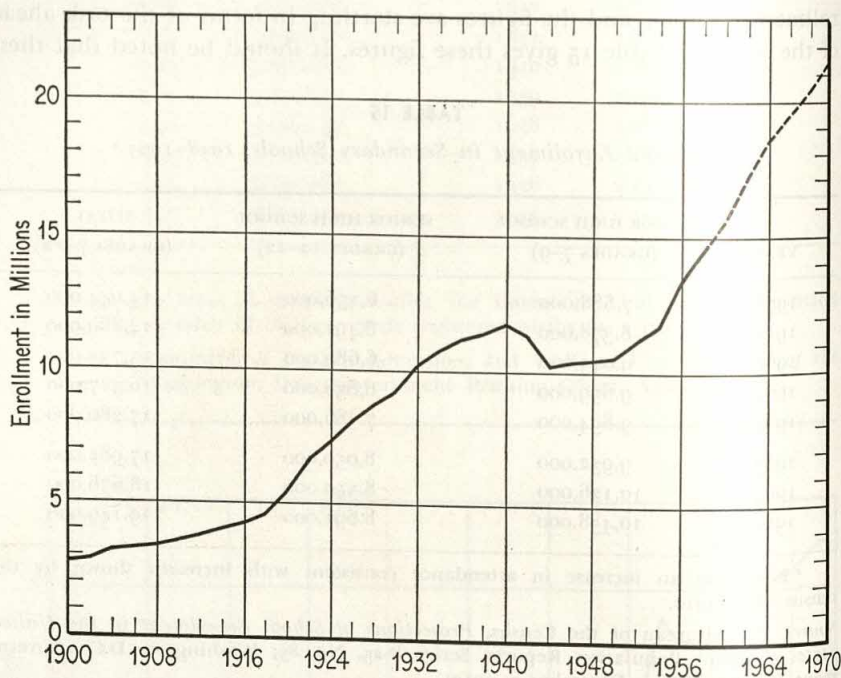


Figure 4. Enrollment in Secondary School, 1900-1970.

school, regardless of the organization of the school system. Until 1970, we face in this country an annual increase of from about 500,000 to 900,000 pupils in our junior and senior high school grades. The impact such increases will have on the secondary schools is evident. To provide space for this many pupils, until at least 1970 this country will need to build each year 1,000 to 2,000 new school buildings that will house an average of 500 pupils; as was pointed out in Chapter 1, we shall need from 20,000 to 36,000 additional teachers each year merely to provide for required expansions in the staff; we shall need carloads upon carloads of equipment, furniture, supplies, books, and the like. And, of course, the schools must have much more money with which to do these things.

But the most challenging task of all will be to plan and carry out an educational program for every boy and girl enrolled that will be the best we can possibly provide in terms of our basic goals of education in America.

While this is the picture for the country as a whole, the situation will vary greatly from community to community. It is for this reason that careful and exhaustive studies of potential enrollments in each community are necessary. Some communities are growing much faster

"Well, Here We Are Back In School, Sort-Of"



from *The Herbblock Book* (Beacon Press, 1952)

than the country as a whole. This is true of cities that are having a rapid industrial expansion or have opened large factories or plants for new types of enterprises, such as atomic-energy plants, or are the sites of large military installations, or are located in areas that are attracting large migrations of population. On the other hand, some areas, obviously, are not growing as rapidly as the country as a whole. This seems to be the situation particularly in rural sections of the country, but some cities are also being adversely affected. Most forward-looking school authorities have long since been conducting studies of potential school enrollments

and are well aware of the local situation in their respective communities and states.²⁷

THE MANPOWER SITUATION

In relation to our national manpower problem, discussed previously, Figure 5 gives us clues to the situation. Because of the huge increases in the number of births since World War II, the number of young men aged fourteen to twenty-four entering the labor force for the first time will increase by about 2,700,000 during the period from 1955 to 1965. But the "lean" generation, or perhaps we should think of it as the favored generation, born during the 1930's will result in a decrease of 700,000 men aged twenty-five to thirty-four in the labor force during that

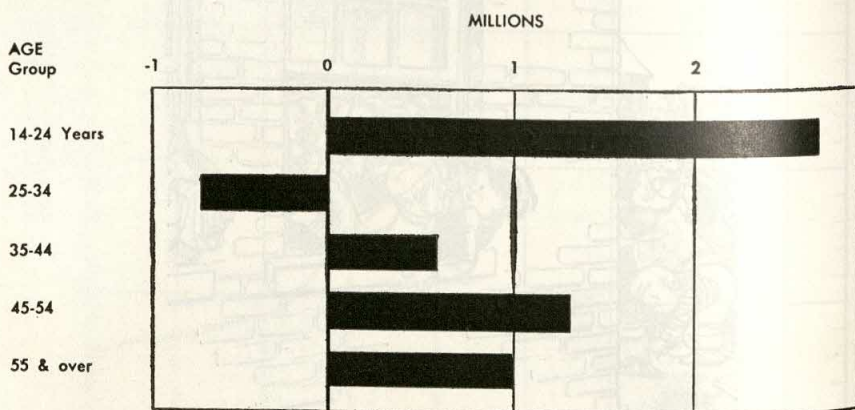


Figure 5. Change in the Number of Men in the Labor Force from 1955 to 1965 by Age Groups. (Source: U.S. Department of Labor, *Our Manpower Future: 1955-1965*.)

same decade. The number of workers aged thirty-five to forty-four will increase by only 600,000: this means that the country is witnessing a decline in the number of workers in prime age groups for the most productive output. Yet to meet the needs of a much larger group of youngsters and of older people no longer in their most productive years, the demands for production and services are increasing greatly. This should mean that the demands for workers will enable young adults just completing our secondary school program to find employment quite readily, although general economic conditions will, of course, be a factor in the total situation. But the number of people available for service in the

²⁷ Harold J. Bowers, "Projecting School Enrollments for One State," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 5:64-66 (March, 1954).

professions, such as teaching, research, engineering, medicine, dentistry, and the like, and for executive positions, will actually decline. How are we going to get teachers during this decade for the additional 500,000 to 900,000 pupils who will enroll each year?

Looking further ahead, one authority predicts that during the decade 1965-1975 the labor force will increase by 13,000,000 workers to a total of 92.5 million. A substantial part of the increase, 3,500,000, will be in the number of men workers twenty-five to forty-four years of age.²⁸ It is impossible to know whether the competition for jobs will become intense during that period, or whether the economy will readily absorb all who seek jobs, but it is apparent that the secondary schools will need to be fully alert to the dynamics of the situation and to plan accordingly. Because of this potential huge expansion in the labor force, pupils now in our schools who have the capabilities of succeeding in the professions and in intellectual pursuits should be encouraged to plan for careers in fields where opportunities for those qualified are great.

Now that we have looked at the task confronting the secondary schools we are ready to consider fully the kinds of schools that should be established for American youth and the programs they should offer. Part II begins with such a discussion of the foundations of educational planning.

For Further Study

Alberty, Harold. *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. Rev. ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953.

The characteristics of adolescents and an exploration of adolescent needs are presented in Chapter 4.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *What Shall the High Schools Teach?* 1956 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1956.

Chapter 2, "The Social Context and the Adolescent," is a good discussion of the impact of social factors on youth.

Barnes, Melvin W. "The Nature and Nurture of Early Adolescents," *Teachers College Record*, 57:513-521 (May, 1956).

Discusses various factors that influence the development of pupils of junior high school age, and cites numerous research studies on adolescent development.

²⁸ Sophia Cooper, "Labor Force Projections to 1975," *Monthly Labor Review*, 80:1443-1450 (December, 1957).

Bernert, Eleanor H., and James N. Ypsilantis. "A Measure of Relative Progression of the School Population of the United States: April 1950," *Journal of Educational Research*, 49:251-262 (December, 1955).

A study of retardation and acceleration in American schools.

Cole, Charles C., Jr. *Encouraging Scientific Talent*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1956.

Contains an excellent review of studies on college attendance, and discusses steps that may be taken to encourage more able students to enter college.

Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training, Dael Wolfe, Director. *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.

A comprehensive study of the manpower situation, with much pertinent information about high school attendance and graduation of American youth.

Educational Policies Commission. *Manpower and Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1956.

Part I analyzes the manpower situation, and Part III discusses programs that will result in better utilization of workers.

Gesell, Arnold, Frances L. Ilg, and Louise Bates Ames. *Youth: The Years from Ten to Sixteen*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956.

This book in the famous series by Gesell and his co-workers presents detailed information on the growth and development of the adolescent, summarizing growth characteristics for each age level of adolescence.

Hand, Harold C. *Principles of Public Secondary Education*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958.

Chapter 5 is an excellent analysis of the holding power of American secondary schools, and a presentation of methods of improving it.

Havighurst, Robert J. *Human Development and Education*. New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1953.

A basic reference on the concept of developmental tasks. Lists and discusses the ten developmental tasks of adolescents.

Havighurst, Robert J., and Bernice L. Neugarten. *Society and Education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1957.

Part II is an extensive analysis of the factors in the social environment of children and youth that influence development.

Jersild, Arthur T. *The Psychology of Adolescence*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957.

One of the best texts on adolescent psychology; a comprehensive and insightful treatment of adolescent development.

Lipset, Seymour Martin. "Social Mobility and Urbanization," *Rural Sociology*, 20:220-228 (September-December, 1955).

A study of the effects of the relative size of a community in which a youngster is reared on his aspiration levels and concepts about occupations, training for occupations, and occupational structure.

McGuire, Carson, and Rodney A. Clark. "Age-Mate Acceptance and Indices of Peer Status," *Child Development*, 23:141-154 (June, 1952).

A research study of social acceptance and peer group status.

Segel, David, and Oscar J. Schwarm. *Retention in High Schools in Large Cities*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1957, No. 15. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957.

A significant study of holding power in the high schools of fourteen large cities.

Strang, Ruth M. *The Adolescent Views Himself: A Psychology of Adolescence*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957.

A good text on adolescent psychology, with special emphasis on adolescent motivation and conceptualizations.

United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Children's Bureau. *The Adolescent in Your Family*. Children's Bureau Publication 347, rev. 1955. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955.

An excellent and widely used pamphlet on adolescent development.

Wattenberg, William W. *The Adolescent Years*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1955.

This text on adolescent psychology devotes much attention to factors that influence development and to the problems that trouble adolescents.

part two

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN AMERICAN LIFE

The secondary school as a social institution is one of the great contributions of the American people to world culture of the present era. It is unique among all of the educational agencies of the world; it serves functions and fulfills purposes never undertaken at all in other nations. In the four chapters comprising Part Two, we will examine in detail this great institution.

The status of the secondary school will first be appraised. The role of the American high school in our culture will be discussed. Considerable attention will be given to some of the problems facing us in secondary education at present, and to some of the issues that have arisen about its functions and purposes in today's world.

A proper understanding of the nature of secondary education in this country can only be obtained by a study of the historical roots of the high school, and of the concepts that have guided the development of secondary education since the first school was established early in the period of colonization. Hence Chapter 4 is a history of secondary education in this country.

Any social institution, and especially one so closely related to the aspirations of the people as the school, is shaped by cultural forces that give expression to the beliefs, values, and expectations of the citizens. In Chapter 5, aspects of cultural life that mold the structure and program of secondary education in this country will be analyzed.

Part Two concludes, logically, with a statement of the

functions and purposes that such a school, shaped as it is by the citizens who establish and maintain it, should serve in our American culture. Goals and objectives for secondary education are stated, and emphasis is given to the fact that the school always exists to attain accepted goals and to function in certain ways. All educational planning must be based on a clear conception of these goals and functions.

3

The Secondary School Today

Among the educational systems of the nations of the world, the secondary school in America is unique in its purposes, functions, structure, and program. It constitutes one of the outstanding achievements of the American people in making effective the democratic ideals of our society. Fundamentally, the American people are immensely proud of their system of secondary schools and of the opportunities it provides all American youth. In this chapter, we shall consider the secondary school as an institution and the place it occupies in American life, giving particular attention to its contributions to the realization of the American "dream," as well as to some of its shortcomings in fulfilling its primary purposes and functions.

What Is the Secondary School?

Stated in its simplest terms, the secondary school is the agency formally organized by society to provide a systematic program of education for the adolescent members of the group after they have completed the elementary level of schooling. This statement is so general that it tells us little about the school; yet it is the only way we can properly define the institution in a single concept. It is not proper to define it as the agency designed to serve the educational needs of youth, for boys and girls may not enroll in it unless they have completed the program of elementary education; neither is it accurate to refer to it as a preparatory institution for college or university, for large numbers of adolescents enrolled do not take a college preparatory course. It is, in fact, the agency for providing formal education beyond the elementary school.

This is the social institution that is such an important part of American life. The data in Chapter 2 showed that practically every adolescent

enrolls in a secondary school, although a large proportion does not complete a program prescribed for graduation. Secondary schools are found throughout the length and breadth of the land, being readily accessible to almost every boy and girl in this country. In even our smaller towns and villages the local high school usually dominates the landscape, and constitutes a significant aspect of the life of the community.

Secondary education is a major enterprise of the American people. More than 14,000,000 of our boys and girls are enrolled in the 28,000 organized secondary schools of this nation; approximately 530,000 teachers are employed in these schools. In addition, 27,000 professional leaders serve as principals of the school, or as supervisory or staff personnel. Each of the forty-nine states has a state department of education that has general administrative and supervisory functions for the schools. In addition, institutions of higher learning provide special programs of professional training for the education of teachers for the secondary schools. And we should never overlook the efforts of a hundred thousand or more members of boards of education, who as representatives of the citizens have legal responsibilities for governing the schools of this country. Indeed, the secondary school constitutes a very significant aspect of American life.

Types of Secondary Schools

The program of secondary education in this country is broad and comprehensive, fulfilling a number of functions and objectives. Moreover, since local school districts are granted a good deal of autonomy in the determination of educational plans and policies of their public schools, considerable diversity in organization, structure, and program of the secondary schools is found throughout the country. Also, in keeping with constitutional provisions and the laws of all of the states, non-public agencies are authorized to establish schools, so this adds to the types of secondary schools existing in the United States.

A summary of types of schools extant in this country is presented in Table 16, but such a categorization needs explanation. In the first place, the types listed are limited to secondary schools approved by the state to fulfill the requirements of compulsory attendance and to grant recognized high school diplomas. Many private trade and technical schools and other educational agencies of this type may offer programs of a level comparable to those available in regular schools, but they are usually not recognized by the state as secondary schools, authorized to grant diplomas comparable to those of public schools. Parochial schools are those controlled and operated by religious denominations; independent schools may be affiliated with religious groups, but each functions

independently, usually under the control of its own board of trustees.

By a comprehensive secondary school we mean one that offers a broad, diversified program designed to meet common educational needs of all pupils and also to serve a variety of individual interests, talents, and needs. Such a high school would offer college preparatory subjects, a general course of study, and one or more specialized programs, such as art, science, trades, homemaking, and the like. A vocational school offers extensive programs of training for various occupations, but it also usually offers considerable work in the area of general education. A

TABLE 16
Types of Secondary Schools in the United States

TYPES	PUBLIC	NONPUBLIC	
		PAROCHIAL	INDEPENDENT
Regular high schools (grades 9-12)			
Comprehensive	C	C	C
Vocational	UC		UC
Specialized	UC		
Restricted general	C	C	C
Senior high schools (grades 10-12)			
Comprehensive	C	C	
Vocational	UC		
Junior high schools (grades 7-9) ^a			
General	C	C	
Comprehensive	UC		
Junior-senior high schools (grades 7-12)			
Comprehensive	C	UC	
Restricted general	C	UC	UC
Evening or part-time (usually ungraded)			
Comprehensive	UC		
Vocational	UC		
Extended secondary schools (grades 13-14)			
General	UC	UC	UC
Technical	UC		
High school-community college (grades 7-10 and 11-14)			
Comprehensive	UC		

Code: C—A common type
UC—An uncommon type
Blank space—Rare or nonexistent

^a Some junior high schools have different grade organization, such as grades 7 and 8 or even 6 through 8.

specialized high school is one "designed to meet the needs, interests, abilities, and terminal aims of a particular segment of the adolescent population."¹ Examples of such schools, all in New York, are the Bronx High School of Science, The High School of Music and Art, The Central Commercial High School, and the Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades. A general high school is one that limits its offering to the traditional academic subjects and perhaps a few introductory courses in the areas of special interest, such as homemaking, typing, and industrial arts. A restricted general high school is one that, because of size or policy, limits its program to courses in general education, with perhaps a very few electives.

Extended secondary schools are included among the types, but few of these are truly secondary schools. The junior college is an accepted part of the American educational structure, but only about 650 of all types have been established. Most junior colleges are institutions of higher learning, but some are organized as a part of the program of secondary education and are accepted as a part of the common school system. A few communities have reorganized the secondary program into two institutions comprising grades 7 through 14. The high school constitutes grades 7 through 10 and the college grades 11 through 14.

Thus considerable diversity exists among the secondary schools as to type, and in Chapter 9 we shall see that the curriculum varies considerably as to comprehensiveness and the nature of the program, but all together these things constitute secondary education in America. We have no rigid, uniform pattern of secondary education, even within the same state or city; yet all of our schools do have one thing in common: universal acceptance of the function of contributing properly to the wholesome, worthy development of boys and girls. In actual practice, then, programs of secondary education are much more alike than unlike throughout the nation. And this seems quite desirable, since boys and girls everywhere are much alike and have many educational needs that are common to all.

Significance of Secondary Education in American Life

Citizens of this country have always had a sublime faith in the contributions which education can make to the realization of the American dream. Even in colonial times, as we shall see in the next chapter, some of the colonies had made provisions for the systematic education of the youth. But with the establishment of the new nation, our great

¹ Board of Education of the City of New York, *Specialized High Schools in New York City* (New York: The Board, 1946), p. 1.

patriots foresaw that the education of the citizenry was essential. Washington, for example, mentioned this in his famous Farewell Address:

Promote then as an object of primary importance, Institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.²

John Adams, with his keen understanding of the problems facing this nation as it undertook a great experiment in democratic government, said:

The instruction of the people in every kind of knowledge that can be of use to them in the practice of their moral duties as men, citizens, and Christians, and of their political and civil duties as members of society and freemen, ought to be the care of the public, and of all who have any share in the conduct of its affairs, in a manner that never yet has been practiced in any age or nation. The education here intended is not merely that of children of the rich and noble, but of every rank and class of people, down to the lowest and poorest. It is not too much to say that schools for the education of all should be placed at convenient distances and maintained at public expense.³

And so, throughout America we do have schools, including secondary schools, "at convenient distances and maintained at public expense." The citizens of this nation have long believed that if we are to have freedom, equality, and self-government we must have a strong system of public education. The American secondary school is the outgrowth of this concern. Today, every boy or girl in America capable of benefiting from a program of education has the opportunity to attend a public high school established by his community. In fact, all of the states had passed laws that compelled attendance in school, at least through the early years of adolescence, although recently in the struggle over segregation several southern states have repealed such laws, and others have special provisions on attendance. One of the prime characteristics of the American culture is this faith in the power of education to free the individual so that he may properly guide his own destinies, develop his potentialities so that he may attain to the fullest his own happiness, and be a moral and upright citizen capable of governing himself. Our challenge as teachers in the secondary schools is to fulfill this faith, to make the secondary school the finest institution possible for the attainment of American ideals.

² John C. Fitzpatrick (ed.), *The Writings of George Washington from the Original Manuscript Sources* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1940), Vol. XXXV, 230.

³ Quoted in Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 58.

EXTENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOLING

Some understanding of the faith of the American people in the secondary school may be gleaned by considering the extent to which young people take advantage of their opportunities to attend. Table 17 presents information on the educational attainments, as indicated by highest grade of school completed, of our young people in 1950, and a comparison with 1940. The age groups selected comprise those young adults who, with few exceptions, are no longer enrolled in the common schools, so the percentages reveal rather accurately the amount of schooling through the secondary level attained by young people in recent years. While it will be noted that from 14.8 per cent of the twenty-one-year-olds to 9.3 per cent of the twenty-four-year-olds were still attending school in 1950, Table 6 in Chapter 2 showed that only 3.3 per cent of

TABLE 17

*Level of Schooling of the American People:
Percentage of Persons of Selected Ages Who Have Completed
Various Levels of School, 1950 and 1940*

LEVEL OF SCHOOLING ATTAINED	YEAR	AGE	21	22	23	24	25-29
Completion of elementary school (grade 6)	1950		92.3	92.1	91.9	91.8	91.5 ^a
	1940		91.9	91.5	91.6	91.4	90.6
Completion of junior high school (grade 9)	1950		75.6	74.8	74.7	74.8	73.1
	1940		68.6	67.5	66.3	64.7	59.9
Completion of high school (grade 12)	1950		53.6	52.3	51.1	50.9	51.7
	1940		45.4	44.6	43.3	42.3	37.8
Some college work	1950		18.2	18.6	18.7	18.2	17.5
	1940		12.8	12.8	12.5	12.5	13.0
Four years or more of college	1950		2.6	4.9	6.3	7.1	7.5
	1940		2.1	3.9	4.8	5.3	5.8
Median year of school completed	1950		12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1
	1940		11.4	11.2	11.0	10.9	10.3
Per cent still attending school	1950		14.8	12.4	10.7	9.3	6.6
	1940		8.5	5.5	3.5	2.5	^b

^a Distribution of total for grades 5 and 6, given in Table 115, based on same ratio as for those 24 years of age, given in Table 114.

^b Data not available.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, *Characteristics of the Population*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary, Chap. C, Tables 111, 114, and 115, and *Population: 1940*, Vol. IV, *Characteristics by Age*, Pt. I, U.S. Summary, Tables 13, 14, 15, 18, 20, and 23 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953 and 1943).

this total group were enrolled in the common schools. Thus even if some of them did go on to finish the next higher level indicated in Table 17, it would have little effect on the figures given for the percentage completing junior high school or high school.

From these data we see that slightly more than one half of all the young people in this country of secondary school age during the decade 1941-1950 graduated from high school. Three fourths of them completed the junior high school program. Certainly this is a remarkable record, and an expression of faith in the American secondary school. Moreover, this desire of the American people to obtain a secondary education is attested by the increase in attendance that has occurred. In the 1950 census, the younger age groups show a higher percentage of completion of high school than do the older groups. An increase of 1.3 per cent in graduation rates by the twenty-one-year-old group over the twenty-two-year-olds seems significant. But much more striking is the extent to which young adults enumerated in 1950 had completed high school than had the corresponding age groups in the 1940 census. The increase amounts to about 8 percentage points, except for the 25-29 age group, in which instance it is 13.9. Clearly, more and more of our young people are remaining in school until graduation from the twelfth grade. The gain in the median number of years of school completed is also evidence of this fact.

Pertinent to our discussion of secondary education is a consideration of the extent to which young people continue their education in institutions of higher learning. Table 9 shows that in 1950 a little over 18 per cent of the appropriate age group were enrolled in college. For the 25-29-year-old group the figure was slightly less, 17.5 per cent. These figures would indicate that about one third of all high school graduates entered college in or just before 1950. This, too, is a significant as well as a remarkable record of educational attainment. The increase in college attendance between 1940 and 1950 is phenomenal, amounting to almost a 50 per cent increase in the proportion of young adults entering college.

Indeed, the significance of secondary education in American life is indicated by the extent to which the young citizens of this country have benefited from its program.

RELATION OF INCOME TO AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING

Certainly few thoughtful people would accept the fact that persons with higher levels of education have, on the average, larger incomes as a primary justification for establishing a program of free, universal secondary education in this country; yet it does show in some degree

at least the significance of secondary schools in American life. Higher relative incomes result in higher material standards of living with whatever advantages they bring in society. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States has made a study of the relationship between levels of schooling and income, farm production, retail sales, magazine circulation, political activity, and economic attitudes. On the basis of evidence presented in the 1950 United States Census it concludes:

There is a direct relationship between education level and earning power and, therefore, buying power in our total American economy.⁴

Relationships between the amount of schooling acquired by people and their income are shown in Table 18. These data are based on the

TABLE 18

*Incomes of Male Persons 35 to 54 Years of Age, 1949:
Percentage of Males Reporting Various Amounts of Income,
Classified According to Highest Level of School Completed*

INCOME LEVELS	ELEMENTARY	HIGH SCHOOL		COLLEGE	
	1-8 YRS.	1-3 YRS.	4 YRS.	1-3 YRS.	4 OR MORE YRS.
<i>35-44 years old</i>					
Less than \$3,000	64.5	44.3	33.6	25.4	15.4
3,000-3,999	19.3	28.0	28.7	24.0	15.0
4,000-4,999	6.9	13.1	15.9	17.6	15.6
5,000-5,999	2.7	5.5	8.0	10.8	13.6
6,000-6,999	1.0	2.1	3.2	5.6	8.7
7,000-9,999	0.8	1.7	3.1	6.1	12.1
10,000 or more	0.6	1.3	2.5	5.5	13.4
<i>45-54 years old</i>					
Less than \$3,000	61.2	44.3	32.5	27.6	16.4
3,000-3,999	19.5	24.5	23.4	19.1	12.3
4,000-4,999	8.0	12.5	14.7	14.7	12.1
5,000-5,999	3.4	6.3	9.0	9.9	11.7
6,000-6,999	1.4	2.5	4.4	6.1	7.9
7,000-9,999	1.3	2.6	4.6	7.2	12.5
10,000 or more	1.1	2.6	5.2	9.0	19.1

Note: Some men did not report income; hence percentages do not total 100.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. IV, *Special Reports*, Pt. V (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), Chap. B, "Education," Table 12.

⁴ Chamber of Commerce of the United States, *Education—An Investment in People* (Washington, D.C.: The Chamber, n.d.), p. 2.

1950 census, in which people were asked to report on income received during the year 1949. The percentage distribution of males from 35 to 54 years of age, the most productive years, classified according to income received and highest level of school completed, is given in the table.

Beginning with the \$5,000 level of income, in every instance the higher the level of schooling completed, the larger the percentage of men earning these top incomes. Of men 35 to 44 years of age in 1950, only 5.1 per cent of those that had completed no more than elementary school earned \$5,000 or more in 1949; but 10.6 per cent of those who had completed up to one to three years of high school earned this amount and 16.8 per cent of those who had graduated from high school but had taken no college work earned \$5,000 or more. Twenty eight per cent of those who had taken some college work fell in these salary brackets, and almost one half, 47.8 per cent, of the men who had completed four or more years of college earned \$5,000 or more. Much the same findings apply to the 45-54 age groups. Two officials of the Bureau of the Census estimate that "a man with a college degree may receive approximately \$100,000 more income during the economically most active years of his life than a man whose education stopped with high school graduation."⁵

Although no claim should be made that these larger incomes result from additional schooling, whatever may be any causal relationship, the figures do give additional evidence of the significance attached to education in the United States.

Achievements in Secondary Education

The significance of schools in our nation has been well stated by Henry Steele Commager, the eminent historian, in his thought-provoking analysis of our educational system:

No other people ever demanded so much of education as have the American. None other was ever served so well by its schools and educators.⁶

The Educational Policies Commission has assessed our interest in education thus:

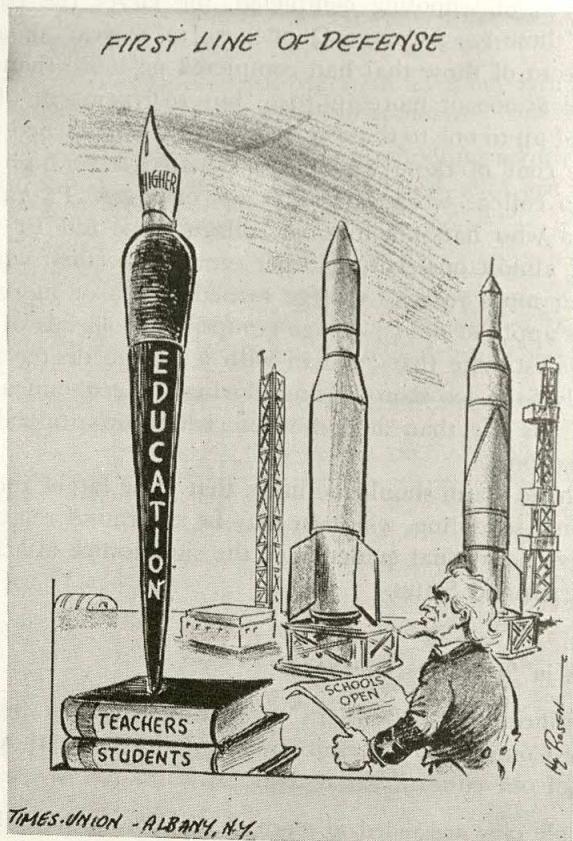
The American people, perhaps more than any other people of history, have long believed in the general beneficence of this process [organized education]. They are fond of regarding universal education as one of the most characteristic expressions of their genius. . . . For generations they have led the world in

⁵ Paul C. Glick and Herman P. Miller, "Educational Level and Potential Income," *American Sociological Review*, 21:310 (June, 1956).

⁶ Henry Steele Commager, "Our Schools Have Kept Us Free," *Life*, 29:46-47 (October 16, 1950).

equalizing educational opportunities and particularly in opening the doors of secondary and higher institutions to all desiring and able to attend.⁷

As we undertake our detailed study of secondary education in the United States in this book, consideration should be given the ways in



Hy Rosen, *Times-Union*, Albany, New York

which secondary schools have "served so well." The American people have accomplished much in the development of our unique system of secondary schools. Obviously, these attainments have been based on a universal program of free elementary education; hence many of these are fully intertwined with the program of those schools. But here we will single out those achievements that reach fruition through the program of secondary education as well as those that are distinctly the product of the upper schools themselves.

⁷ Educational Policies Commission, *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1941), p. 43.

1. *Establishing a system of universal, free, public secondary schools open to all.* This is certainly an outstanding achievement of the American system of public education. The United States has long led the other nations of the world in making secondary education generally available to all youth. Enrollment is free and open to all boys and girls upon the completion of a program of elementary education. Barriers to admission are not arbitrarily erected and the secondary school stands ready and willing to accept all youth who enter its doors, and it endeavors to provide them with the best education possible.

In addition to this system of public schools, nonpublic groups are also privileged to establish secondary schools that are devoted to the achievement of the same basic goals for the education of youth.

Our society not only has established a system of free, public secondary schools open to all; it considers schooling for adolescents so important that every state has laws that compel attendance in school through the fifteenth or sixteenth year of age or in a few states, even the seventeenth or eighteenth, except for certain modifications in compulsory attendance laws made in some states recently as a result of the segregation issue. (See page 684.) Secondary schooling is an accepted part of the life of every American youth.

2. *Providing opportunities for youth to develop their individual potentialities and capabilities.* As a result of our system of free, secondary schools, each adolescent in this country has the opportunity to develop his own potentialities and talents. Broad and comprehensive programs of secondary education are available to youth throughout the land, with all eligible to benefit from them. Enrollment in particular types of program, such as college preparatory, vocational, creative, scientific, and the like, is not determined on the basis of station in life, social position, future prospects, or similar undemocratic standards. Moreover, no youth is forced to pursue a predetermined course of study selected by officials on the basis of the immediate interests of the state. The capabilities, potentialities, and interests of the boy or girl are the primary consideration in guiding him into particular courses of study, and if the pupil insists on taking a specialized course in spite of the advice of the school, he is usually permitted to do so.

The high school is a cross section of American life, with every boy and girl given an opportunity to excel in terms of his individual talents. The Educational Policies Commission, in its excellent analysis of public education in America, *Public Education and the Future of America*, illustrates this point effectively by printing the line-up for a football game between two high schools:⁸

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *Public Education and the Future of America* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1955), p. 69.

 LINEUP

CENTRAL HIGH		EAST HIGH
Oleson	LE	Veccinni
Dumbrowski	LT	MacGregor
Smith	LG	Kamaala
Okada	C	de Souza
Valdez	RG	Schmidt
Washington	RT	Kerchevsky
Descartes	RE	Cabot
Gottlieb	QB	Van Antwerp
Riley	LH	Chin
Adamatoulous	RH	Aroulian
Llewellyn	FB	Smythe

Billie Davis, who dubs herself "The Hobo Kid," tells what the great American school system came to mean to her as a child of destitute, itinerant parents, and in her heart-warming tribute to the American public schools, she said:

. . . That because of you [teachers], because of our school system, I am not a hobo any more, but I am a citizen, clean and smooth, equal to other citizens, and I live in a house.⁹

The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, appointed by President Eisenhower, takes much the same position in its report to the President:

. . . the schools have become the chief instrument for keeping this nation the fabled land of opportunity it started out to be. . . . Schools free men to rise to the level of their natural abilities. . . . The schools stand today as the chief expression of the American tradition of fair play for everyone, and a fresh start for each generation.¹⁰

Providing youth opportunities to develop individual potentialities necessitates a broad, comprehensive program of secondary education. Within the resources and facilities available, our high schools have endeavored to do this. Provision must also be made for the varying abilities of pupils. Studies have shown that the abilities of pupils are distributed from low to high on the basis of a "normal curve." Hence, instruction,

⁹ Billie Davis, "I Believe in Our Public Schools," in American Association of School Administrators, *Building Americans in the Schools* (Official Report, 80th Convention, 1954; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1954), p. 145.

¹⁰ The Committee for the White Conference on Education, *A Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 4.

to be appropriate, must be adapted to these variations in ability in all phases of the program. The modern secondary school has found this to be one of its most difficult problems, but certainly it is doing a far better job of gearing the learning activities to the individual abilities of each pupil than any school system any place in the world has ever done before. For at least three decades educators have been struggling with this problem in educational planning, and we are further along in solving it than ever before.

Sloan Wilson, not a professional educator, but a novelist, sums up this significant development in American education thus:

Every year more and more pupils sought admittance to the high schools. A high school education was part of the American dream, and people in those days dreamed hard and fruitfully. . . . The theories of professional educators did not instigate the great change in public education—it was the demand of the public, insistently voiced through every school board in the land. And what the public wanted was perfectly clear: a high school education for every American child.

But all children aren't capable of a straight classical program, plenty of educators objected. Well all right, the answer came: most children are capable of acquiring *some* education, aren't they? Give each child as much as you can. Don't kick them out of school. It's a disgrace to be kicked out of school, and schools shouldn't be in the business of disgracing children. Just keep all the children, and give them as much as possible.¹¹

3. *Advancing knowledge and the cultural life of the people.* It is apparent that if the program of secondary education is soundly formulated and if a large proportion of our young people participate in it, the cultural level of the people will be enhanced. Certainly it is much better for each of us Americans to be a member of a social group in which three of every five young people complete a program of secondary education and about nine of every ten undertake such a program than a member of a group in which only 10 to 15 per cent of the young people even enter a secondary school and even fewer complete its program, as is true today even in many of the advanced nations of the world. The people of the United States have achieved the highest level of education in the history of the world and it seems evident that their cultural level has thereby been advanced. Of course, the nature and character of the educational program as well as its extent is a crucial factor in advancing the cultural and intellectual attainments of the people, and in general the kind of education provided in secondary schools throughout the country has been formulated to advance knowledge and raise the cultural standards of the people.

The secondary school has contributed to the advancement of knowl-

¹¹ Sloan Wilson, "Public Schools Are Better Than You Think," *Harper's Magazine*, 211:30-31 (September, 1955). Reprinted by permission of *Harper's Magazine*.

edge. In our unitary, ladder system of education, it provides a very significant and basic part of the education of young people who later become scholars in all fields of endeavor. Often it is because of an interest developed during high school days in a particular subject area that young people go on to specialize in that field in undergraduate and graduate study. It is in the secondary school that the pupil has an opportunity to become acquainted with and explore a number of fields of knowledge, and to test his interests and evaluate his talents and capabilities in possible areas of specialization. Great scholars, statesmen, scientists, teachers, and creative artists may come from any walk of life, and the free and unselective American high school is usually the social institution by which young people become aware of their talents and are stimulated to develop them.

4. *Producing a unified, enlightened, competent citizenry.* Together, the elementary and the secondary schools have educated a citizenry that has been remarkably successful in creating and operating a democratic government. As our great statesmen from the earliest days of independence have repeatedly pointed out, an informed and educated citizenry is essential if government by the people is to flourish. Our schools have served us well in this respect. They have taught American ideals and traditions, and imbued the young with a love and respect for our great nation. The secondary school has given youth a basic understanding of our system of republican government and of the rights and the responsibilities of the citizen.

Our system of free, public education has enabled the children of the tens of millions of immigrants who came to our shores in the past century as well as many of their parents themselves to become quickly Americanized and to unite together through common bonds of understanding and insight. For most of these children the secondary school has undoubtedly been the chief agency in opening wide the doors of opportunity and in enabling them to enjoy the fruits of democracy. It has exemplified and taught to all its pupils the principles of fair play, of equality of opportunity, of respect for human personality, and of concern for human welfare. It has inculcated a high level of moral values and unified the American people through developing allegiance to human rights.

5. *Contributing to the development of a productive and creative society.* The productive genius of the American people is unprecedented, and the secondary school has contributed greatly to this accomplishment. To achieve such marvels of production, producers—farmers, workers, managers—must be educated. The American worker is better educated than any other in the world. Working with him in a coordinated effort

to attain such high levels of production are managers, scientists, engineers, and other specialists, all beneficiaries of our secondary schools.

While creative genius may not be the product of formal education as such, nevertheless it seems a safe assertion to say that our secondary schools contribute to the artistic life of the people in a significant manner. Our programs in music and art are developing higher levels of appreciation among many youth of this country, and are enabling those with talent to discover and develop their abilities.

6. *Fostering a respect for the individual and developing his ability for self-direction.* This achievement in the field of secondary education is closely correlated with the provisions made for individual development, discussed in the second item of this list, but here emphasis is given to the extent to which the secondary schools of this country emphasize the development of a self-directing, self-disciplined person and contribute to an acceptance of the concept of individual worth. It is conceivable that secondary schools could provide for the development of individual potentialities and capabilities, yet do it so arbitrarily and authoritatively as to abrogate individual rights and freedom of action.

The concern of the American secondary schools for the integrity of the individual is illustrated by the broad and comprehensive curriculum provided for pupils. Rather than force all pupils to take a single prescribed program, our high schools offer a choice among several basic courses of study, and usually a number of elective subjects within these elected programs. Also, instruction is geared to the varying ability levels of pupils, either through grouping methods in assigning class sections or in adapting the work of a single class to the achievement levels of the various pupils. A single set of arbitrary, rigid standards is not applied indiscriminately. Most high schools have developed guidance programs of one kind or another through which the school seeks to guide the individual development of the adolescent, helping him with important life problems, guiding his choices of educational programs, and providing special services, such as psychological and psychiatric counsel, when seriously needed.

The broad program of extraclass activities that has been sponsored by the secondary school gives further evidence of our concern for the individual, for through such activities many pupils have opportunities to develop talents and abilities, as well as to gain desirable experiences in social living. Such activities as athletics, music, dramatics, school assemblies, school paper and yearbook, special-interest clubs, and the like, have enabled many adolescents to explore and develop special talents as well as to have valuable developmental experiences.

But what seems to many thoughtful people as one of the major achievements in secondary education is the cultivation of self-discipline, self-direction, and self-assurance among its pupils. While we cannot disregard the fact that the development of personality and behavior patterns is the product of the total culture, and particularly the home environment, nevertheless the modern secondary school contributes significantly to the development of behavior patterns among its pupils. Modern education is based on the concept that pupils learn what they experience with meaning and purpose, and the school has provided varied and challenging experiences to youth in making decisions, in directing their own activities, in coping with situations, in choosing courses of action for personal behavior, and in clarifying moral values. And youth generally profit immeasurably from these opportunities in terms of personal development.

Although much concern is expressed about delinquency among youth today, less than five of every hundred get into serious trouble. If the secondary school is to be blamed for these social failures, then by the same token it should be given credit, and much credit, for the ninety-five who are such competent, upright, morally sound citizens. Young people are growing up in a very complex world, in which many conflicts in value patterns exist and in which social and emotional tensions are great. Contrast the life of a twenty-one-year-old today with that of a young adult of forty or fifty years ago. Our young man may have already served in the armed services under conditions of military life, and perhaps in some far-off place in another continent; he lives in the age of the airplane, radio, television, atomic energy, high-speed automobiles, and electronic devices of all types. None of this confronted his counterpart of forty or fifty years ago. Most of them lived very simple lives, often never leaving the county in which they grew up. When we consider all of this, our pride in the American secondary school increases, for it has helped youth live in a modern world and yet be masters of their own destinies. Not only must the modern secondary school instill knowledge and advance the intellectual development of youth, it must enable youth to live wholesomely in this complex era of history.

7. *Adapting to changing social conditions.* Two types of changes have greatly influenced the development of secondary education in this country. First has been the change in society itself. Life in America today is much different from the life of fifty years ago and we as a people face many different and vastly more complex social, economic, and political problems. Second has been the change in the composition of the high school student body itself. The nature of this change has been fully spelled out in Chapter 2.

One of the remarkable things about secondary education in this

country has been the way in which it has adapted its program to both of these changes. The organization of secondary education itself has been altered to include the junior high school, and in some instances the community college.

But the most significant change has occurred in the curriculum of the school. Contrast the program of studies of a high school of fifty years ago with the program for the same school today. The offerings of most city high schools have been broadened greatly; the subject matter included in the courses and the types of learning activities in which pupils engage have been expanded. Similarly, the goals of the school have been extended, so that today we not only stress acquisition of knowledge and basic skills, but emphasize as well the development of character, traits of good citizenship, value patterns basic to democratic living, healthful living, ability to establish a good home, and vocational competency. Secondary education is much more comprehensive now.

8. *Utilizing teaching methods based on research and the known facts about learning.* A large body of research on the psychology of learning and teaching methods has provided a solid base for organizing and guiding learning experiences in today's secondary school. Most teachers are quite adept at using methods which exemplify to a high degree principles based on these studies. Purposeful and significant learning activities are planned for pupils, and a high level of learning is attained. Caswell, in pointing out the improvement in teaching methods, stated:

To a greater extent teachers endeavor to teach directly for the goals they are after; they consider the interests of pupils of major importance; they have little faith in the value of memorizing facts for their own sake; they attempt to guide pupils in activities that incorporate in their actual living the goals the school is seeking.¹²

Modern teachers try to make sure that learning experiences in the school are meaningful and significant to pupils. To do this they often have pupils share in planning their class activities, and make them active participants in classroom projects, such as committee work, panel discussions, research activities, discussion, preparation of reports, experimentation, demonstration, and the like.

9. *Making available good teaching resources and equipment.* Although this achievement may be of relatively minor importance, yet it is well to call attention to the rich variety of good teaching materials and equipment now available for pupils. Modern textbooks are of high quality; many audiovisual materials are available for use in classes; tools and machines of the latest design are used in appropriate courses; a variety

¹² Hollis L. Caswell, "The Great Reappraisal of Public Education," *Teachers College Record*, 54:18 (October, 1952).

of equipment and supplies is available for experimentation and demonstration; equipment in homemaking units is of the best; library resources are extensive; and throughout the school every department may choose good teaching materials and equipment for carrying out its objectives.

10. *Maintaining local control over the schools.* One of the outstanding characteristics of education in this country is extent to which citizens locally, through thousands of local districts, control the schools. These districts, of course, are subject to the state, but all of the states have wisely permitted the citizens themselves to exercise a large measure of autonomy in determining the nature of the educational program. Most of us believe this is a wise policy and this vestment of control in local citizens to be one of the notable achievements of the American school system.

11. *Providing a competent staff of teachers.* Generally speaking, secondary schools are staffed with well-qualified teachers. Formal training is much more extensive than it was in the earlier decades of the century. Professional education is more comprehensive and planned more carefully to provide the necessary competencies. Most teachers are cultured people, and highly respected members of their communities.

Shortcomings in Secondary Education

Even though the American people have accomplished much in the development of a program of secondary education for the youth of this nation, none of us would maintain that the program is perfect, or even all that it should be. In attempting to provide education for all the youth of all of the people we are faced with a very complex and difficult task, and we have not yet as a nation developed in every respect the best program for all concerned. Because secondary education for all is a relatively new development in American life and in the world at large, we need to try out different approaches and procedures, to experiment, to evaluate and to redirect our efforts accordingly, to explore ideas, to debate issues and policies, and to examine practices so that our secondary schools may be the best possible.

What one considers to be shortcomings in secondary education will depend, of course, on one's concepts of the functions and purposes of the secondary school and of its obligations and responsibilities in present-day American life. The criticisms summarized below are frequently directed against secondary schools by educators themselves, by sober-minded and careful students of American life and institutions, and by responsible citizens who are concerned about the program of secondary education being provided the youth of this country today. Most of these criticisms reflect a point of view about an issue of educational theory, but the

criticism will only be presented here; in Chapter 10 we shall analyze these issues. Here, then, are some of the deficiencies of the American program of secondary education, as represented in criticisms made by educators and lay citizens.

1. *Secondary schools have not properly defined their basic functions and purposes in American life.* Secondary education has changed greatly during the past fifty years, not only quantitatively but qualitatively. As a result of these changes, many people vitally interested in the schools believe that the functions and purposes served by the school, as expressed in its program and practice, have been modified improperly and that, as a consequence, the curriculum has been debased.

In recent years a great debate on the purposes and functions of the secondary school has been waged in public life. Dissatisfaction with the present program of secondary education has led to a critical examination of its purposes, some critics of the school maintaining that educators in general have developed programs and policies that have contravened what they conceive to be valid goals of education.

Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., professor of history at the University of Illinois and one of the outspoken critics of the present-day program of the secondary school, believes this to be true and states his views on the proper function of the school in these words:

No agency but the school can provide the systematic, disciplined intellectual training required. This is, and always has been, the primary, indispensable function of the school. The nation is betrayed if the school shirks this responsibility or subordinates it to any other aim, however worthy in itself. The school exists to provide intellectual training, in every field of activity where systematic thinking is an important component of success.¹³

And the blame for any betrayal of the nation in holding fast to this basic purpose of the school, Bestor maintains, falls on the educator:

An increasing number of public-school administrators and educational theorists today refuse to define the purposes of the school in terms of intellectual training or of recognized disciplines of science and scholarship.¹⁴

A. Whitney Griswold, President of Yale University, follows much the same line of criticism by decrying the neglect of the traditional subjects of the liberal arts:

Is it any wonder that in this suddenly expanded realm of secondary education, where from time immemorial the liberal arts have had to prove themselves in competition with utilitarian education of all kinds—where they have always had to make a case for themselves or give ground—they gave ground? They did not

¹³ Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., "Anti-Intellectualism in the Schools," *New Republic*, 128:11 (January 19, 1953). Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

give it in an objective test of merit or by decision of policy. They gave it by default.¹⁵

Harold W. Dodds, former President of Princeton University, continues the indictment by maintaining:

In doing away with a lot of the so-called "tough" subjects, like foreign languages, history, and mathematics, and substituting "useful" ones like home economics, manual training, physical education, learning to play in the band, and many other worth-while but hardly basic subjects, your child, especially if he is above average, is apt to be short-changed in the matter of developing into a well-rounded, educated person. If he is well-rounded, it's likely to be, as a fellow educator said, "in the manner of a phonograph record, with the same limited repertory."¹⁶

Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, a scientist in charge of the development of nuclear propulsion for the United States Navy, is one of the most outspoken of the critics of the present-day program of the schools. He stated:

All except the academic subjects are of the kind which we might term "know-how." They have nothing to do with the school's primary task, which is to teach young minds to think and to train them in the elementary tools of learning. This task can be performed only by the school. Vocational, recreational or life-adjustment training can be and should be obtained elsewhere.¹⁷

Thus, on one hand we have those who believe that the high school is deficient because it does not give proper emphasis to the disciplines of the liberal arts that they believe to be fundamental in a program of secondary education.

On the other hand, educators also criticize the secondary school because its curriculum is inadequate, but for opposite reasons. They charge the high school with being too "academic" and too narrow in its program, and with maintaining a curriculum not adapted to the needs of youth. In 1938, a committee of prominent educators, in listing criticisms of the curriculum of the secondary school of that day, stated:

The curriculum is remote from the student's daily life outside of the school. Despite the efforts of John Dewey and his followers, our public school system still remains aloof from the everyday living of its pupils.¹⁸

¹⁵ A. Whitney Griswold, "What We Don't Know Will Hurt Us," *Harper's Magazine*, 209:80 (July, 1954). Reprinted by permission of *Harper's Magazine*.

¹⁶ Harold W. Dodds, "Your Youngster and the Public Schools," *The American Magazine*, 157:111 (January, 1954).

¹⁷ Rear Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, "Let's Stop Wasting Our Greatest Resource," *Saturday Evening Post*, 229:109 (March 2, 1957). Reprinted by permission of the author.

¹⁸ American Association of School Administrators, *The Commission on Youth Problems, Youth Education Today* (Sixteenth Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938), p. 57.

Yet twenty years later, 1958, a committee of this same organization of school administrators made almost a similar charge against the high school:

The challenging goal of guaranteeing to all normal youth the opportunity to achieve self-realization and social effectiveness is not being attained in the vast majority of our secondary schools. Instead, the accumulation of a four-year block of 16 Carnegie units is still the prevailing gauge of educational growth and development. Too much of our practice is unrelated to the philosophy and purposes of youth education, the ever-pressing demands of our economy and culture, and the needs of young people. A functional, purposeful program of secondary education is a goal yet to be realized in most communities. . . .

One major weakness of the secondary school in many communities is an outmoded, entrenched curriculum which fails to serve effectively the needs of students and the requirements of modern living.¹⁹

This point of view also gave rise to the adoption of the famous Prosser Resolution at a conference on vocational education, convened by the United States Office of Education in 1945. Incidentally, it was this action that led the Office to formulate plans for a program of "life-adjustment" education in the schools, a conception of secondary education that has been repeatedly ridiculed by many of the present-day critics of the secondary school program. The Resolution stated:

It is the belief of this conference that, with the aid of this report in final form, the vocational school of a community will be able better to prepare 20 percent of the youth of secondary-school age for entrance upon desirable skilled occupations; and that the high school will continue to prepare another 20 percent for entrance to college. We do not believe that the remaining 60 percent of our youth of secondary school age will receive the life-adjustment training they need and to which they are entitled as American citizens. . . .²⁰

And so the secondary school of today has been under attack from two opposing forces—those educators and citizens who believe that it has forsaken its time-honored function of training the mind and disciplining the intellect, and those who feel that it has not fully accepted functions and purposes that would commit it to the development of a program for the all-round education of the pupil in important aspects of daily living.

2. *The secondary school has accepted roles and responsibilities and is performing services which are not consistent with its proper function, and which militate against its efforts to fulfill its essential purpose.* This criticism is interwoven with the one just discussed, but it represents a

¹⁹ American Association of School Administrators, *The High School in a Changing World* (Thirty-sixth Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1958), pp. 357-358.

²⁰ U.S. Office of Education, *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth* (Bulletin 1951, No. 22; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951), p. 16.

different facet of one of the stated shortcomings of our secondary school.

Bestor stated the charge in these strong words:

Obviously the school exists to satisfy the needs of individuals and of society. But it is designed to meet, and is capable of meeting, certain needs only. The school is one, but only one, of the agencies of society that minister to young people's needs. The family, the church, the medical profession, the government, private business—all exist to satisfy the needs of men and women, young and old. Some may not do the job as we would wish. But that affords no excuse for the school to neglect its task also, in a vain attempt to remedy the deficiency. The idea that the school must undertake to meet every need that some other agency is failing to meet is a preposterous delusion that can wreck the educational system without contributing anything to the salvation of society.²¹

Admiral Rickover also holds this to be one of the faults of the American high school. In an address before the annual conference of the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation at Detroit in November, 1957, he contrasted it in this respect unfavorably with European schools:

European schools are neither social clubs nor finishing schools. Their objectives are limited and clearly defined: They seek to equip the child with all the intellectual tools he can handle; they nourish his mind with as much general culture as he can absorb; and they give his body all the exercise it can take.

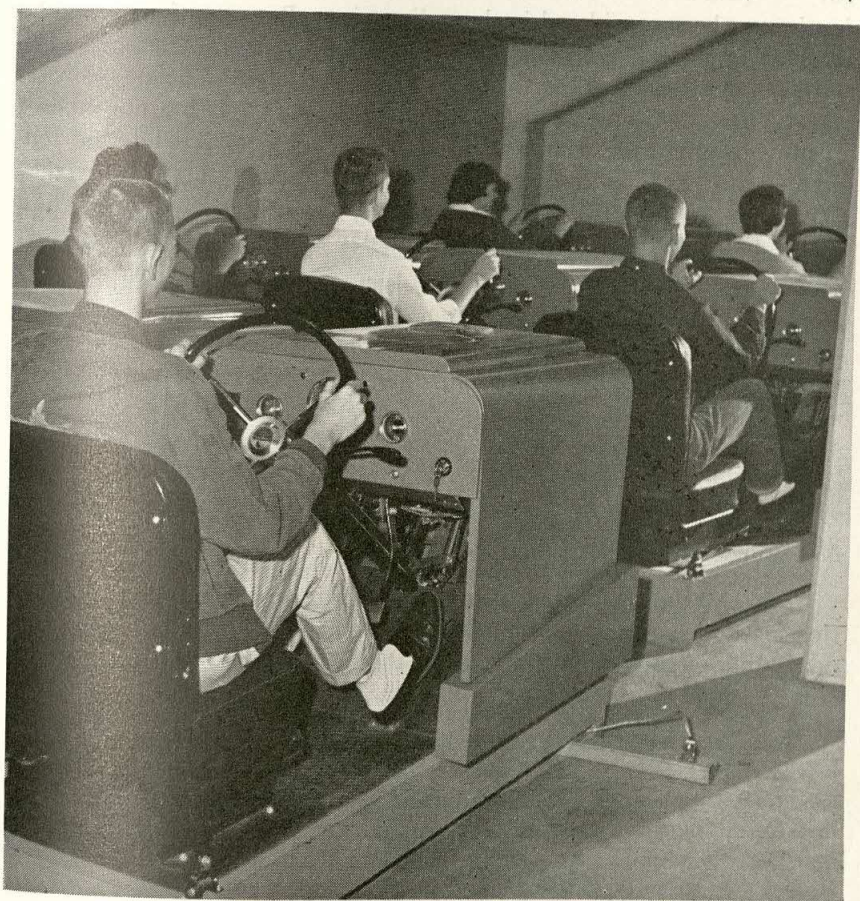
There was a time long ago when our country needed hardy pioneers to conquer a continent rather than educated men; our anti-intellectualism which colors so much of our thinking about education has its roots in this pioneer past. . . . American emphasis on nonacademic school objectives, notably on teaching children manners and social graces, the efforts we make to maintain a uniform level of behavior and accomplishment—all the essentially extracurricular burdens we put on our schools—go back to a time when the school was our best instrument for Americanizing millions of foreigners as rapidly as possible.²²

This problem of what kinds of programs and services the school should offer, in light of the responsibilities of the family and the other social agencies of the community, has greatly concerned many educators too. This widely discussed issue is recognized as one of the central problems of secondary education today. Two educators, Hollis L. Caswell and Arno A. Bellack, state the importance of the matter:

What, for example, is the distinctive function of the school in contemporary society as contrasted with the functions of other institutions like the family and the church? Considerable differences of opinion are to be found among both educators and citizens as to proper limits of the school's responsibility. Yet a

²¹ Bestor, *loc. cit.*, p. 11.

²² Rear Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, *The Balance Sheet on Education: Europe, Russia, United States* (New York: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 1957), pp. 17, 23.



What Are the Proper Functions and Purposes of Secondary Education? The modern high school has developed a broad and comprehensive program, designed to prepare youth for participation in life's activities. Driver education is an example of such an addition to the program of studies. (Courtesy of the Oklahoma City Public Schools.)

considered point of view on this issue is the very foundation on which decisions concerning the "fundamentals" must be based.²³

3. *The curriculum of the high school does not give proper emphasis to essential subjects, and pupils are not required to study subjects necessary for their intellectual development and for the promotion of national welfare.* This is a corollary of the previously discussed shortcomings, and

²³ Hollis L. Caswell and Arno A. Bellack, "Curriculum Developments," *School Executive*, 74:59 (January, 1955). Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

has in part been considered in those discussions. But attention should be directed to several additional aspects of these criticisms. Because some of its critics believe that the secondary school has failed to define properly its basic functions and purposes, with the result that it has undertaken to provide programs, services, and activities not considered to be consistent with their concepts of function, it follows naturally that they charge the schools with curriculum practices that are not sound. Thus, Bestor added to his criticisms of present-day school practice by stating:

A school that puts the trivia of "life-adjustment" education on a par with rigorous study of the fundamental intellectual disciplines is not vindicating democracy but is doing its best to demonstrate that the opponents of democracy were right when they predicted that a democratic society would be a society without standards or values.²⁴

Certain intellectual disciplines are fundamental in the public-school curriculum because they are fundamental in modern life. . . . Science, mathematics, history, English, and foreign languages are essentials of the secondary-school curriculum because contemporary intellectual life has been built upon a foundation of these particular disciplines.²⁵

Sloan Wilson, who had paid great tribute to the public schools of this country in 1955, wrote much differently in 1958 in a sweeping condemnation of curriculum practices in the school. One of his major criticisms is stated as follows:

Upon arriving at high school today an American youngster is faced with a bewildering choice of literally scores of subjects, many combinations of which can lead to a diploma, and many of which are far easier than physics, mathematics, or a foreign language. He can study marriage, chorus, or "advertising arts." In some schools he must give time to the study of safe driving and the evils of alcohol. Courses in typewriting and dancing vie for his time.²⁶

Probably the most sweeping indictment of present-day curricular practices in the secondary school, however, is made by Mortimer Smith, who caustically attacks many programs developed as a part of the "life-adjustment" movement.²⁷

Even President Eisenhower, in an address on education delivered during American Education Week in 1957, felt it advisable to call the attention of the American people to the problems relating to the school curriculum:

²⁴ Arthur Bestor, *The Restoration of Learning* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955), p. 25. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

²⁶ Sloan Wilson, "It's Time to Close Our Carnival," *Life* (No. 12) 44:37 (March 24, 1958). Reprinted by permission of Willis Kingsley Wing. Copyright 1958, by Sloan Wilson.

²⁷ Mortimer Smith, *The Diminished Mind* (Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1954), Chaps. 2 and 3.

No matter how good your school is—and we have many excellent ones—I wish every school board and every P.T.A. would this week and this year make one single project their special order of business: to scrutinize your school's curriculum and standards to see whether they meet the stern demands of the era we are entering.²⁸

Particular concern has been expressed in recent years about the failure of the secondary school to offer adequate programs in science and mathematics. The nation, admittedly, has had and faces an even greater shortage of highly trained scientists and technical specialists, and many citizens, university professors, and public officials have placed a considerable part of the blame on the high school.²⁹ A rapidly expanding economy in the 1950's, coupled with a relatively small number of young people graduating from high school because of lower numbers of births in the 1930's (see Chapter 2), has produced a serious shortage of specialized manpower. Trained young people are not available to supply the demand for personnel in many of the professions. This shortage is especially serious in scientific fields. Leading members of these professions and citizens concerned about national welfare have criticized the high schools for not enrolling more pupils in courses in science and mathematics. In fact, the percentage of high schools offering courses, and particularly advanced courses, in these fields has declined during the period of the past twenty-five years, and the percentage of pupils taking such subjects has, of course declined. Those who consider mathematics and science essential subjects in the high school curriculum have been vigorous in their demands that more emphasis in the high school be given to these fields.

Regardless of how we view the curriculum and its strengths or deficiencies in terms of offerings, almost everyone would agree that the quality of the educational program varies greatly from school to school, and even from state to state. Accident of place of residence will often determine the kind of secondary schooling a young person will obtain in America. These variations are due to differences in the amounts of money spent on the educational program, the interest of the citizens of a community in the schools, the cultural background of the community, the

²⁸ President Eisenhower's address on education, delivered at Oklahoma City, November 13, 1957, reprinted in *The New York Times* (No. 36, 454) 107:14 (November 14, 1957).

²⁹ Three official documents are pertinent on this subject: Congress of the United States, Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, *Shortage of Scientific and Engineering Manpower* (Hearings before the Subcommittee on Research and Development; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956); The President's Committee on Scientists and Engineers, *Second Interim Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, October 4, 1957); United States Senate, *Science and Education for National Defense* (Hearings before the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958).

educational level of its citizens, and the competency and vision of its educational leadership. Although it would be very difficult, if not impossible, under our system of local control to hold all high schools to a standard level of quality, yet extreme variation among high schools throughout the nation does not seem consistent with our concepts of equality of opportunity in a democracy.

On the basis of a nation-wide testing program, Professor Benjamin S. Bloom of the University of Chicago, points out the situation and its seriousness:

The states vary considerably in the performance of their high-school Seniors on the different tests. The differences are so great that high-school graduates from the lowest states are at a disadvantage in any educational situations in which they are competing with the graduates of the secondary schools from the highest states. The differences undoubtedly have economic, social, and cultural consequences.³⁰

This admitted unevenness in the quality and character of the educational program in secondary schools throughout the country has led some citizens to propose that a rigid system of examinations, administered nationally or by the colleges and universities, or a national program of accreditation be established.³¹ This, it is maintained, would reestablish proper standards of achievement for pupils throughout the nation, and avoid the "watering-down" of the curriculum and the wasting of time on nonessential subjects and activities.

4. *The program of the school does not provide adequately for the education of intellectually gifted pupils in terms of their abilities and capacities.* This shortcoming of our modern secondary school is the fourth facet of the interrelated problems discussed previously.

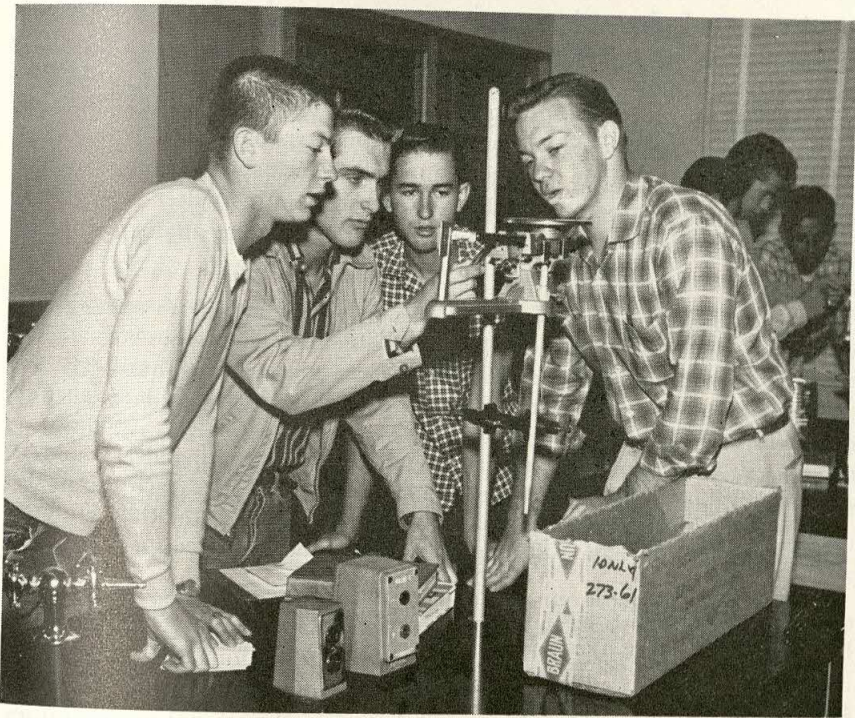
Criticism has mounted in recent years that the secondary school has neglected seriously the educational needs of gifted and talented pupils. These critics maintain that the secondary school in general does not require such pupils to stretch themselves intellectually and that the standards of educational attainment are set at a level that does not force such pupils to exert high intellectual effort. It is claimed that the work is too easy and that such pupils are not challenged to do the quality of work of which they are capable.³²

³⁰ Benjamin S. Bloom, "The 1955 Normative Study of the Tests of General Educational Development," *School Review*, 64:124 (March, 1956). Reprinted by permission of The University of Chicago Press.

³¹ Bestor, *The Restoration of Learning*, Chap. 22.

Rickover, *The Balance Sheet on Education: Europe, Russia, United States*, pp. 27-28.

³² Rickover, "Let's Stop Wasting Our Greatest Resource," *loc. cit.*, pp. 108-111.



Are the Intellectually Able Pupils Being Challenged to Develop Their Potentials to the Fullest? Individualization of instruction is difficult to achieve for all pupils, but most high schools offer ample opportunities for superior pupils to study advanced courses in major fields of instruction. (Courtesy of the Albuquerque Public Schools.)

Not only do these critics feel that the standards of work are too low; they feel that many intellectually able students are permitted to take subjects in high school which do not contribute significantly to their intellectual growth. Thus the schools are charged with being anti-intellectual. And, of course, it is from this group of pupils that the nation will obtain its corps of trained scientists; hence those concerned about shortages in that profession are also greatly disturbed by the failure of many of our gifted pupils to seek out these subjects and to enter college to become specialists in these fields. Our shortages in scientific and engineering manpower can be alleviated only by stimulating a larger proportion of intellectually able pupils to study scientific subjects in high school and to seek careers in these fields through advanced study. So rather suddenly in this age of scientific achievements, such as earth satellites, and nuclear fission and fusion, the schools have become the targets of sharp and bitter attacks for their failure to offer an ex-

tensive array of advanced courses in science or to induce bright youngsters to enroll in what courses are offered.

5. *The schools have insufficient finances to provide an adequate program of education.* In spite of the lavishness with which the American people support public education in this country, many serious students of education believe that we as a nation still do not spend enough money to provide a good program of education for all youth. Walter Lippmann, a distinguished journalist and commentator on public affairs, wrote in 1954 that

we must, I believe, come to see that the effort we are making to educate ourselves as a people is not nearly equal to our needs and to our responsibilities. . . .

Can it be denied that the educational effort is inadequate? I think it cannot be denied. I do not mean that we are doing a little too little. I mean that we are doing much too little.

. . . If we were not operating at a deficit level, our working ideal would be the fullest opportunity for all—each child according to its capacity. It is the deficit in our educational effort which compels us to deny to the children fitted for leadership of the nation the opportunity to become educated for that task.³³

The percentage of our national income devoted to education has not kept pace with the tasks imposed on the secondary school. The increasing complexity of our society and changes in our national life necessitate more adequate and comprehensive programs of education than ever before. If we are to provide adequate and proper educational opportunities for all of our boys and girls, the American people need to increase substantially the proportionate share of our national wealth being devoted to their education. Two presidential commissions in recent years have both stated emphatically that expenditures for public education in this country must be significantly increased in the years ahead, envisioning an increase of double or even treble the amounts spent at the time the reports were made.³⁴

6. *The rate of attrition in secondary schools is much too high.* We noted in Chapter 2 that about 62 per cent of all youth graduate from high school. While this is a very high proportion, especially when compared to other countries of the world or with figures for earlier periods of our history, it still is not high enough if we are to have an educated citizenry. Certainly most if not all of the boys and girls who are now dropping out of high school before graduation could benefit from school-

³³ Walter Lippmann, "The Shortage in Education," *Atlantic Monthly*, 193:36-38 (May, 1954). Reprinted by permission of the author.

³⁴ The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, *A Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 7.

The President's Committee on Education beyond the High School, *Second Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 4.

ing of the proper kind. We need to examine our program of secondary education carefully to see what changes may be called for so that all youth will want to remain until graduation. Changes in the curriculum may be required, administrative practices may need to be modified, or the structure of secondary education itself may call for reorganization. If we believe in education for all youth, then we ought to devise a program that will benefit all youth maximally and yet be a program in which they will want to participate voluntarily.

7. *Many pupils fail to attain a desirable level of achievement and do not possess a high level of skill in fundamentals or an adequate knowledge of our cultural heritage.* The charge is frequently made that many of our high school graduates do not have sufficient grounding in the fundamental skills that should characterize an educated person. These complaints particularly relate to their ability to use spoken and written English and computational skills. But criticism has also been made of their lack of interest in reading good literature, in keeping abreast of the times, or in participating in intellectual activities after leaving school. Bestor, again, voiced the complaints of the critics:

Our standard for high-school graduation has slipped badly. Fifty years ago a high-school diploma meant something. It meant a certain degree of command of certain well-understood fields—mathematics, foreign languages, English, history, science. Today it may mean that for some students. But it frequently means nothing at all in terms of real intellectual skill.³⁵

In a comparable vein, some critics claim that many high school graduates have an inadequate knowledge of basic elements in our cultural heritage, particularly in the areas of history, geography, economics, and science. In fact, scholars in almost any field are likely to see in high school pupils glaring deficiencies in knowledge of their particular subject. In addressing the White House Conference on Education, James R. Killian, Jr., President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, rather chides some critics on this point:

Too many college professors think of the high school only in terms of its responsibility to prepare students to do well in the freshman subject taught by them.³⁶

In this connection the question again arises of what constitutes a proper education for youth, for others interested in education claim that our schools fail to help pupils develop good health and sound physical

³⁵ Arthur Bestor, "What Went Wrong with U.S. Schools," from a copyrighted interview in *U.S. News & World Report*, 44:72 (January 24, 1958).

³⁶ James R. Killian, Jr., "What Should Our Schools Accomplish?" Address to White House Conference on Education, November 29, 1955. Press release.

bodies, to give young adolescents a proper knowledge about marriage and family life and sexual behavior, to teach them to appreciate good music or art, or to plan for wise use of their leisure time. Thus, again we must point out that what a person considers to be the deficiencies or shortcomings of programs of secondary education stems from his concept of the basic and essential functions of a secondary school. Hence, teachers in the school and parents and citizens as well must clarify the goals of education.

8. *The school fails to develop proper patterns of behavior, adherence to value patterns accepted as good, or high standards of conduct.* Probably few if any of us exemplify fully in our day-to-day living the values and codes of behavior accepted as valid and proper in American life. And so it is with young adolescents enrolled in our high schools. But some critics of the school feel that the school is not doing what it should and can do to inculcate ideals and values and to foster their observance in daily living. Teen-agers are charged with being unruly, antisocial, delinquent, inconsiderate, irresponsible, undisciplined, and with exhibiting similar traits of behavior that are not approved by the critics of the moment. Whatever serious shortcomings some small proportion of school-age youth may have in their character traits some people are prone to blame on the schools, being quick to allege that certain aspects of the program or certain policies of the school contribute to such behavior.

9. *Methods of teaching and of organizing instruction do not conform adequately to what is known about the psychology of learning or human motivation.* Psychology is a relatively new field of investigation, and much of our knowledge about the nature of learning and how learning may best be guided and directed is of recent origin. Its translation into practice has lagged woefully in many secondary schools of the country. Even if it is planned at all in terms of psychological principles, much teaching carried on in classrooms today is still based on psychological principles and concepts that have been repudiated or significantly modified by more recent findings. But it may well be pointed out that the adaptation of teaching methods and instructional organization to modern findings of psychology is not an easy task for even the most skillful of teachers. Much progress has been made, as was pointed out in listing teaching methods as an achievement of the school. Compared with fifty years ago, great progress has been made in improving teaching, but much more could be done and is being done in our best schools.

Some also criticize the schools for their slowness in making use of new aids to instruction and materials for teaching. Although many schools pride themselves on their use of such aids, most of our teachers quite largely ignore them, and rely chiefly on a single textbook, perhaps sup-

plemented on occasion by a few references or other bits of material. Some educators believe that television offers great promise for upgrading the instructional program of the school, but high schools have been slow in even experimenting with this new medium.

10. *The high schools have been charged on occasion with teaching beliefs and principles that are not consistent with our American traditions.* For a time in the 1950's certain individuals and organized pressure groups charged the schools with advocating what these critics claimed were "anti-American" doctrines and beliefs. The threat to good schools was serious in a number of communities, where bitter wrangles broke out over the patriotism of teachers, the beliefs and views set forth in certain textbooks used, and the nature of the subject matter taught in the social sciences. It was indeed a critical time for educators who sought to protect the schools from falling under the domination of groups that wanted to mold the schools to their own ends and purposes. Fortunately, most of the school systems of the country escaped this sort of criticism in its more serious form, but educators everywhere became greatly concerned over these charges.³⁷

Although such attacks still break out in some local areas from time to time, in general they have subsided throughout the country and most citizens seem satisfied that the schools are not teaching un-American doctrines.

In placing in juxtaposition the achievements and the shortcomings of secondary education in the United States, we should not make the error of weighing one against the other and trying to strike a balance of goodness, for these are qualitative matters and represent different points of view, as well as different degrees of significance. Even though the secondary school does have some shortcomings, as even its most ardent supporters are quick to admit, it still stands as one of the great social attainments of the American people. Its contribution to human progress and advancement has been immeasurable. We are interested in its shortcomings as a basis upon which to make changes so that it will even better serve the people of this nation. A very astute evaluation of the schools was made by Defense Secretary Neil H. McElroy in addressing the opening session of the President's Committee for the White House Conference on Education, of which he was then chairman:

American schools today present us, I believe, with a paradox: they have improved so fast for many years, and yet they are still so far from being what we want and need. Our schools have shown progress, but they simply have been

³⁷ A brief analysis of some of the more active organizations that lead in these attacks is contained in Robert A. Skaife, "Groups Affecting Education," in *Forces Affecting American Education* (1953 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1953).

unable to keep up with the rush of history. When we discuss the shortcomings of our schools, however, let us not sell ourselves short. Never in the history of the world has there been a nation where so many people could get so much education as in the United States today. We agree that we have much further to go, but we should not obscure the triumph of making so much education available to so many. This is surely one of the proudest achievements of any nation in any age.³⁸

President Eisenhower spoke in much the same vein in paying tribute to the American program of secondary education:

By every step taken to banish ignorance, we have increased our hold on liberty. By every measure taken to enlarge our comprehension of the world in which we live, we have amplified the possibilities for human happiness. We possess in our land a largeness of justice and freedom beyond our forefathers' dreams, because the education of our youth has been a primary goal of this Nation.³⁹

For Further Study

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Bereday, George Z. F. "Selective Education Versus Education for All," *Teachers College Record*, 58:198-206 (January, 1957).

Discusses in a very insightful manner some of the issues involved in educating all youth in a democracy, and sounds a warning about practices that would lead to selectivity.

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One of the most outspoken critics of secondary school practice and theory presents in this book his criticisms and his position on policies and philosophy of education.

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A statement on the shortcomings of the American high school.

³⁸ Neil H. McElroy, Opening Address, White House Conference on Education, November 28, 1955. Press release.

³⁹ "President Eisenhower Speaks on Education at Defiance College," *School Life*, 36:49-50 (January, 1954). Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

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The author presents his views on the "great debate" about the functions and purposes of education and his synthesis of the two opposing positions.

———. *Let's Talk Sense about Our Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1953.

An analysis of some of the problems facing the schools today, and proposals for adjudication of differences in points of view.

4

The Development of American Secondary Education

The secondary school today should be viewed in historical perspective so that we may formulate a clear concept of its functions, purposes, and program, properly understand its practices, and definitively establish the principles that should guide planning. A knowledge of its historical traditions provides an insight into many of its achievements, as well as its shortcomings, and furnishes a starting point for evaluating practice and formulating plans for its improvement. Consequently, in this chapter consideration will be given to the historical roots of the American secondary school.

The Establishment of Secondary Schools in the United States

The origin of the American secondary school lies in the English system of secondary education that prevailed in the mother country during the sixteenth century. The model for these English schools (commonly known as Latin Grammar Schools) was the school founded by John Colet, Dean of the Cathedral, at St. Paul's Cathedral in London about 1510. Colet was strongly imbued with the spirit of classical Humanism that had developed as a part of the Renaissance of learning in Western Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

Incidentally, Humanism is a term used to denote a concept of education which looks to the ancient classics for authority as opposed to religion, nature, or philosophy. Humanism put great emphasis on grammar and rhetoric as the prime elements in education and held that human intelligence can best be developed by a study of the great classical masterpieces of Greek and Latin literature, not only for their rhetorical

style and use of grammar but for their literary excellence as well. Colet's instructions relative to the curriculum of his school illustrate the humanistic program of the times:

As touching in this school what shall be taught of the Masters and learned of the scholars it passes my wit to devise and determine in particular but in general to speak and sum what to say my mind, I would they were taught all way in good literature both Latin and Greek, and good authors such as have the very Roman eloquence joined with wisdom specially Christian authors that wrote their wisdom with clean and chaste Latin other in verse or in prose, for my intent is by this school specially to increase knowledge and worshipping of God and our Lord Christ Jesus and good Christian life and manners in the children.¹

The grammar school developed rapidly in England, since many of the older monastic and cathedral schools were taken over and converted to this type of school during the Reformation. New ones were founded to take care of the sons of the rising middle class of landowners, traders, and merchants. It is estimated that as many as five hundred were in existence at about the time of American colonization.²

This is the type of secondary school known to and attended by many of the leaders in the English colonization of America. This is the school that served as a model for the establishment of secondary schools in the earliest period of colonization in Virginia and Massachusetts.

THE LATIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL IN AMERICA

Plans were made for the establishment of a grammar school in Virginia as early as 1621, when the parent company, the Virginia Company, set aside land for the purpose and decreed that a school should be founded. But a serious blow to the colony caused by the Indian massacre of 1622, and the failure of the Virginia Company in 1624 seems to have prevented the establishment of the school; certainly no lasting institution was created.

The Puritans in Massachusetts were more fortunate in their efforts to found a school, for the Boston Latin School was established in 1635. It has had a continuous existence ever since, and is now serving as one of the secondary schools of that city. The school was authorized at a Boston town meeting on April 23, in which the citizens voted that one

¹ Quoted with modern spelling in Edward Ellsworth Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools* (New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1902), p. 14. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

² R. Freeman Butts, *A Cultural History of Western Education* (2d ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955), p. 210.

Philemon Pormont "shalbe intreated to become scholemaster for the teaching and nouuttering of children with us."³ In 1636 the richer inhabitants made subscriptions "towards the maintenance of a free school master for the youth with us, Mr. Daniel Maud being now also chosen thereunto."⁴ In 1641 the Boston town set aside an island in the Bay for support of the school and in 1649 additional lands were earmarked for the same purpose. Bequests were made from time to time. Later the selectmen of the town were authorized to pay the salary of the teacher from tax funds. This school was a town school established by the community. It was a preparatory school for Harvard College, founded in 1636. One of its famous students, Phillips Brooks, pointed out, "It was the classic culture in those earliest days that bound the Latin School and Harvard College close together. . . . it and the school became, and ever since have made, one system of continuous education."⁵

In the first sixteen years of the life of the colony, or until the passage of the famous law of 1647, seven or eight little pioneer towns of Massachusetts had established grammar schools.⁶ The schools were part public and part private in that most of the towns set aside public lands for support of the schoolmaster and some of the inhabitants agreed to assess themselves sums of money annually for the support of the schools. The control of the school was in the hands of the citizens, acting through the town meeting or a school committee; yet it was not fully a public institution, since it was not truly an agency of the government, subject to complete governmental control, although admittedly the distinction in these early Massachusetts towns is hard to make.

The next great step in the development of education in Massachusetts came with the passage of the law of 1642. This law provided:

This Court, taking into consideration the great neglect of many parents and masters in training up their children in learning, and labor, and other employments which may be profitable to the common wealth, do hereupon order and decree, that in every town the chosen men appointed for managing the prudential affairs of the same shall henceforth stand charged with the care of the redress of this evil . . . and for this end they . . . shall have power to take account from time to time of all parents and masters, and of their children, concerning their calling and employment of their children, especially their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of this country . . . and they shall have power, with consent of any Court or the magis-

³ Quoted in Pauline Holmes, *A Tercentenary History of the Boston Public Latin School: 1635-1935* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935), p. 3.

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 37.

⁶ A very interesting account of the Boston Latin Grammar School and other New England grammar schools is to be found in Henry Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, 27:17-156 (January, 1877).

trate, to put forth apprentices the children of such as they shall (find) not to be able and fit to employ and bring them up.⁷

The law did not establish schools as such, for education in the rudiments was still regarded as the responsibility of parents or the masters of apprentices. This was consistent with practices in England, for the government of that country made no provision for the establishment of schools for the education of children in the mother tongue, assuming that this was a responsibility of parents and masters of apprentices. They could instruct the children themselves, employ tutors for the purpose, send their children to the parish school if one existed, or engage a neighboring housewife to teach them (the basis for the so-called dame schools).

The most significant of the colonial laws, however, was the famous "Old Deluder, Satan" Act of 1647:

It being one chief project of the old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures. . . . It is therefore ordered, that every township in this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased your number to 50 householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read, whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general . . . provided, those that send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns; and it is further ordered, that where any town shall increase to the number of 100 families or householders they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they shall be fitted for the university, provided that if any town neglect the performance hereof above one year, that every such town shall pay 5 pounds to the next school till they shall perform this order.⁸

These two acts are very important milestones in the development of a system of education in this country, for they (1) clearly established the authority of the civil government (even though in the Massachusetts Bay Colony it was the handmaiden of the church) over the education of children and the establishment of schools, (2) made the education of the child (but not school attendance) compulsory, (3) compelled communities to establish and operate schools, (4) recognized the necessity of providing opportunities for youth to obtain an education in their local communities, and in this case as preparatory to college, and (5) authorized public support of these schools. In general, the passage of these acts within the early years of the founding of the colony shows the concern of the colonists for the proper education of their children.

Most of the other New England colonies followed quite closely the

⁷ Quoted with modern spelling in Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Readings in Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), pp. 16-17. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 18-19.

pattern established by the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Connecticut enacted the Massachusetts Acts of 1642 and 1647 verbatim in 1650, and New Haven passed similar legislation in 1656. When New Hampshire became a separate colony it, too, passed similar laws. Plymouth relied on private education for fifty years, but in 1670 it established a town school, and in due time supported it by public taxation. In 1692, when it was incorporated into the Massachusetts Bay Colony, it, of course, came under the provisions of the laws of 1642 and 1647.

In Virginia, and other southern colonies as they were established, education was largely a private affair, following closely the example of England. For those parents who could afford it, tutors were employed or children were sent to private schools. A few endowed schools were established, but no general system of secondary schools, such as was established in New England, was even attempted.

In the middle colonies, the responsibilities for education devolved principally upon the churches. This was due not only to the English origins of the colonies, for the government in the mother country did little about the establishment of schools, but also to the fact that these colonies were often inhabited by diverse religious groups, who wanted responsibility for their own religious and educational advancement. Penn attempted to develop civil control over education in Pennsylvania, but in time his efforts failed and education became a matter for the church to handle. And thus it was in most of the middle colonies. Often the colonial government enacted laws relative to education, but conflicts over control of these colonies, some dissension among the various groups themselves, and finally the transference of governmental control to the crown militated against attempts to establish a system of schools under civil control. So what secondary education existed in these colonies throughout the remainder of the seventeenth and most of the eighteenth century was provided through the churches or by private tutors. However, most of the colonies passed laws that required the children of poor parents to be taught a trade through the apprentice system.⁹

THE NATURE OF THE LATIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL

As is to be expected, the Latin Grammar Schools varied considerably in program and quality of instruction, being largely dependent on the competency of the instructor. Although the schools were established to teach Latin and Greek, there is evidence that some of the schools adapted themselves to the exigencies of the situation and gave instruction in English, and even in reading and writing. This was particularly true in

⁹ See Carl Van Doren (ed.), *Benjamin Franklin's Autobiographical Writings* (New York: The Viking Press, 1945), pp. 220-230.

communities where an elementary school for teaching the rudiments might not be available. In later years, as interest in the study of Latin declined, particularly among the new commercial classes of people, undoubtedly some of these schools adapted themselves to new demands of the leading citizens of the community for a more practical education. But in general, instruction was designed to prepare the boys to enter college, and in those communities near Harvard, Yale, and other colleges as they came to be established, instruction was primarily devoted to Latin and Greek, and was rigorous indeed. Admission requirements to Harvard required an ability to read and speak Latin, a wide reading in Latin literature, and an ability to decline Greek verbs, so naturally the Latin Grammar Schools established by these same colonists to prepare for Harvard provided such instruction.

But the acts establishing some of the schools also provided for instruction in English. Thus in establishing a school in 1639 the Dorchester (Massachusetts) citizens provided: "This rent of 20 pounds a year to be paid to such school master as shall undertake to teach English, Latin, and other tongues, also writing." In fact, there is evidence that in the course of time, a number of these secondary schools really became English grammar schools, teaching English, writing, arithmetic, and other subjects in addition to the classical Latin and Greek. They may have even been adjuncts of the reading and writing school in some frontier communities, teaching the classics only when some pupil wanted it for college preparation.¹⁰

The regimen of the grammar schools was rugged. Accounts of these early schools show that the school day extended from as early as seven in the morning to four or five o'clock in the afternoon, with two hours off at noon. School was in session throughout the year, with only an occasional holiday. Memorization was the primary method of teaching, and the discipline was harsh and even cruel at times.

Boys entered the school when they were about seven, and remained until they were ready to pass the college entrance examinations, often a period of about six or seven years, or until they just dropped out. Thus, many of these youngsters entered college at about the age of fourteen.

Even though the Latin Grammar School was basically an English institution transplanted to a pioneer country, it did represent an important phase of the development of the American secondary school. In establishing the only kind of secondary school with which they were familiar, the colonists kept alive the traditions of education among the people of this new country, and thus provided a base from which a more

¹⁰ Clifford K. Shipton, "Secondary Education in the Puritan Colonies," *New England Quarterly* (No. 4), 7:646-661 (December, 1934).

appropriate kind of institution was later to be developed. The experience gained by the colonists in establishing, organizing, and governing secondary schools enabled them to refine the pattern and structure as new demands and conditions arose. Fortuitous circumstances in New England, where the congregation of the church and the governing body of the community were one and the same thing, gave rise to the concept of community or public support of the school and control by the citizens of the community through their town meetings. The setting aside of public land for support of the school and in some instances the agreement of the householders to pay sums for this purpose set the pattern of public support for education at a time when it was financed and controlled by the church or private groups in England and other European countries.

THE DECLINE OF THE LATIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL

In spite of the significance we attach today to the Latin Grammar School as the first step in the founding of secondary schools in this country, the institution flourished only under difficulty, even in New England. This might be expected under the conditions of pioneer life, especially the farther the settlements became removed from Harvard and the centers of culture around Boston and New Haven. The records of the times show that even though Massachusetts raised the fine to 30 pounds and the size of the town required to establish a grammar school to 150 families in 1718, many communities simply did not establish a school, preferring to pay the fine. A number of communities petitioned the General Court for exemption from the law. In the middle and southern colonies, where the school existed only on a church or private basis in a few of the larger communities, its importance also declined. As an educational agency the Latin Grammar School reached its pinnacle near the end of the seventeenth century, but thereafter the people largely turned to other methods of promoting learning in the colonies.

The decline of the Latin Grammar School stemmed from a number of facts: (1) its early concern for humanistic learning devolved into a meaningless and formalized study of Latin grammar and rote memorization of Latin from a few authors—a type of learning that certainly had little relationship to the needs of a citizenry settling a new continent; (2) it ignored entirely the needs of a large body of influential citizens engaged in commerce, trade, government, industry and agriculture; (3) only a few young men planned to enter college, and there was small reason for others to attend; (4) it utterly failed to include in its curriculum science and mathematics, which were of increasing interest and importance to the people; (5) it divorced itself from the people by re-

quiring the use of Latin as a mode of written and even spoken language instead of the vernacular language and literature; and (6) it was being supplanted by new types of schools that proved to be far more popular with the people.

During this same period (the seventeenth century) the narrow, hollow kind of education that had developed in the Latin Grammar Schools was being subjected to attack in England and Western Europe. Francis Bacon, John Milton, John Locke, Montaigne, and Comenius were all vigorous in their criticism of the pedantic nature of education, which had come to emphasize form rather than substance. Exciting developments in science and the works of a whole new group of philosophers and scholars on the continent and in England were all published in the native tongue of the country, not in Latin, as had been the case a century earlier, and this contributed to a loss of interest in the study of Latin and Greek.

Development of the Academy

The settlement and growth of America, the expansion of trade and commerce, the movement westward, with the establishment of new frontier towns, the growth of the functions of civil government at the expense of the church, the increase in the diversity of religious sects, and similar movements all set the stage for the development of a new type of educational program—the academy.

THE PRIVATE-VENTURE SCHOOL

The rise of the private-venture school, run by teachers as a means of earning a livelihood, laid a foundation for the academies. These private schools are not to be confused with Latin Grammar Schools which, in a sense, were private too; rather, in these instances individuals simply offered their services in instructing the youth in practical subjects desired by them. In an account of the development of these schools in the colonies, Seybolt cites many advertisements that appeared in journals, beginning early in the eighteenth century, in which instruction in many practical subjects was offered. Thus, this advertisement appeared in the *American Weekly Mercury* during October and November, 1723:

There is a School in New York, in the Broad Street, near the Exchange where Mr. John Walton, late of Yale-Colledge, Teacheth Reading, Writing, Arithmatick, whole Numbers and Fractions, Vulgar and Decimal, The Mariners Art, Plain and Mercators Way; Also Geometry, Surveying, the Latin Tongue, and Greek and Hebrew Grammers, Ethicks, Rhetorick, Logick, Natural Philosophy

and Metaphysicks, all or any of them for a Reasonable Price. The School from the first of October till the first of March will be tended in the Evening.¹¹

Even in venerable Boston, where the Latin Grammar School was still flourishing as a preparatory school for Harvard, this announcement appeared in the *Boston News Letter* of March 14-21, 1709:

OPPOSITE to the Mitre Tavern in Fish-street near to Scarlets Wharff, Boston, are Taught Writing, Arithmetick in all its parts; And also Geometry, Trigonometry, Plain and Spherical, Surveying, Dialling, Gauging, Navigation, Astronomy; The Projection of the Sphere, and the use of Mathematical Instruments: By Owen Harris.¹²

Seybolt supplies us with many such illustrations of "practical" schools that had sprung up to provide young and old alike instruction in subjects of immediate value to them in their daily living. Following the precedent of the Latin Grammar School and of the ordinances in New England establishing grammar schools, these schools also became known as "grammar schools," "English Schools," or "English Grammar Schools." Seybolt quotes an announcement, published in 1774, that describes in detail the program to be offered in "The English Grammar School" operated by Thomas Byerley and Josiah Day.¹³

The offerings of these schools were not dictated by college entrance requirements or even by the traditions of classical education, as was true of the Latin Grammar School. The English Grammar School, or a comparable school known by other names or often not named at all, developed in response to the needs of many people not interested in preparing for the ministry or in acquiring the "culture" associated with an elite class. It prepared for the workaday world and gave its pupils those elements of an education useful to them in life. But it is also to be noted from Seybolt's lists of announcements of these schools that many also gave instruction in the classical languages of Latin and Greek if desired, so that those interested in higher education could be prepared for admission even though a Latin Grammar School might not exist in the city. The development of these English grammar type of schools largely centered in the cities of the middle and New England colonies. Even Seybolt's extensive review of the literature of this first part of the eighteenth century contains hardly a reference to the development of such schools in the South.

¹¹ Quoted in Robert Francis Seybolt, *Source Studies in American Colonial Education: The Private School* (Bulletin No. 28, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, College of Education; Urbana: The University, 1925), p. 99.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 35.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 96-98.

As Seybolt points out, these schools were not academies and should not be so regarded. But they, in part at least, were forerunners of the academies that developed somewhat later in the 1700's.

FRANKLIN'S ACADEMY

The institution that was to dominate American secondary education during the last portion of the eighteenth and most of the nineteenth century—the academy—stems from a proposal published by Benjamin Franklin in 1749 called, "Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pensilvania."¹⁴

Just what the antecedents of Franklin's plan were is not clear, but very likely he was impressed by the programs of the English Grammar Schools and the private-venture school. He himself had been taken out of a Latin Grammar School by his father and placed in a school for writing and arithmetic and later apprenticed as a printer,¹⁵ so he was familiar with the more practical schools of the day. In his autobiography, he stated that he was distressed by the lack of provisions "for a compleat education of youth" in Pennsylvania. As early as 1743 he had formulated a plan for an academy, but the man he wished to make head of the school was not interested and he could find no one else available at the time.

The term "academy" originated from Greece, where it designated a suburb of Athens that was a public pleasure ground. It was here that Plato carried on discussions with his pupils, and here his followers later established a school. But in modern usage the term comes from the Renaissance, for at that time academies represented associations of learned men who came together for the advancement of knowledge through study together. It had an extensive development in Italy and France during this period. In England, a proposal to establish an academy was first made by Milton in 1644. Later the academies did develop in the mother country as educational institutions for the dissenters.¹⁶

Since Franklin had spent a brief time in England in 1724 it is quite possible that he learned about such schools there. Franklin's pamphlet was widely distributed in Philadelphia, and the campaign he initiated to raise funds for the establishment of the academy resulted in the subscription of at least 5,000 pounds, according to Franklin's estimate. Those joining in the project selected a group of twenty-four trustees

¹⁴ The text of this proposal is readily available to the reader in Edgar W. Knight and Clifton L. Hall, *Readings in American Educational History* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951), pp. 74-80.

¹⁵ Van Doren, *op. cit.*, pp. 220, 707.

¹⁶ Brown, *op. cit.*, pp. 155-177.

and approved a constitution for the government of the school. Some years later Franklin wrote that it opened in 1749, but others set the date of establishment as 1751, when it obtained permanent quarters. In due time the school was chartered by the proprietaries of the province as The Academy and Charitable School in the Province of Pennsylvania, and grants of land were made by the proprietaries and contributions were received from England.

Franklin's concept of the function of his academy is best stated in his own words:

As to their Studies, it would be well if they could be taught *every thing* that is useful, and *every thing* that is ornamental; But Art is long, and their Time is short. It is therefore propos'd that they learn those thing that are likely to be *most useful* and *most ornamental*. Regard being had to the several Professions for which they were intended.¹⁷

The academy was organized in two schools, the Latin and the English, with a subsidiary school, the mathematical, being added later. Each was under a separate master. The tuition fee in each school was four pounds a year. In 1754 a philosophical school was added, with the result that in 1755 the institution was rechartered as the College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia, with the Latin and philosophical schools constituting the college, and the English and mathematical schools the academy. The charitable school was operated by the trustees in fulfillment of an agreement made in 1751 in obtaining the building. Incidentally, the College later became the University of Pennsylvania.

But the academy which Franklin nurtured never fulfilled his dreams for a new type of educational opportunity for the youth of the day. He had envisioned a school that would emphasize English, writing, history, mathematics, science, modern languages, gardening, agriculture, commerce, bookkeeping, geography, morality, drawing, and similar areas of study, although he also endorsed the teaching of Latin and Greek, but would not require any language, ancient or modern, of all students. He believed it to be essential that they study English, mathematics, and other subjects of a practical nature. But the hold of the classical tradition was too great, and soon, as Franklin himself pointed out some years later in a strong letter of protest to the trustees, the English school was relegated to a role of minor importance and the Latin school was made the dominant school. The "Latinists" decried the English school as useless and were incensed to think that a school that taught the "vulgar tongue" and sciences in that tongue should ever be a part of a college such as they considered their institution to be. Franklin pro-

¹⁷ Knight and Hall, *op. cit.*, pp. 76-77.

posed that the English school be separated from the Latin school so that it could more readily carry out the program he had recommended.

Nevertheless, Franklin's efforts in Pennsylvania resulted in the founding of a new type of institution for secondary education. Throughout the colonies a number of these schools were established prior to the Revolution. The name "academy" was used rather loosely, but in general the term was used to designate a school that provided instruction in English and many of the more practical subjects, although most of them did offer the classical subjects that were necessary for admission to college. Brown insists, however, that the institution at Philadelphia was the only one "regularly incorporated under this designation previous to the breaking out of the Revolution."¹⁸

THE RISE OF THE ACADEMY

In the last quarter of the eighteenth century the academy movement spread rather rapidly throughout all of the country, but particularly in New England and the middle states. Two academies founded by the Phillips family at Andover (Massachusetts) in 1778, and Exeter (New Hampshire) in 1783 served as models for many of these new schools. The Andover academy was the first to be chartered in all of New England. The contrast to the old Latin grammar school of a century earlier is well shown by the statement of the purpose of the academy at Andover:

... the *first* and *principal* object of this Institution is the promotion of true PIETY and VIRTUE; the *second*, instruction in the English, Latin, and Greek Languages, together with Writing, Arithmetic, Music, and the Art of Speaking; the *third*, practical Geometry, Logic, and Geography; and the *fourth*, such other of the liberal Arts and Sciences or Languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and as the TRUSTEES shall direct.¹⁹

Following the Revolution, as the new states generally undertook the development of systems of education for the people, the academy rapidly reached its zenith in importance, serving as the primary agency for secondary education until the Civil War, and continuing as a major factor in the educational program of the nation until late in the nineteenth century. The old colonial grammar schools had practically ceased to exist, in spite of the fact that the famous law of 1647 had remained in force in Massachusetts, with only minor changes being made in the size of the town required to establish a grammar school and an increase in the fine assessed for failure to maintain it. In fact, even Massachusetts

¹⁸ Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 190.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 195.



Phillips Exeter Academy, 1783. The original building, which housed the academy at the time of its founding in 1783, shown here, is still used as one of the buildings of the institution. (Courtesy of the Phillips Exeter Academy.)

accepted the inevitable and in 1797 gave the academies official status as a part of the educational program of the state.

The academies were not public institutions in the sense of being established and operated by public bodies, as had been the grammar schools of New England and the public high schools of today. Some were founded and operated by churches, some by colleges, but many of them by public-spirited citizens on a voluntary basis. Often they were chartered or authorized by law or incorporated under law. In many states grants were made by the state, often in the form of public lands, for the establishment and operation of the academy. In some cases, support in the form of an annual appropriation was made to state-authorized institutions. In fact, rivalry for state funds sprang up in some sections between academies and the colleges. Several elaborate plans were formulated for providing an entire state system of academies in a number of states: Jefferson's proposals for Virginia, and laws in Maryland, Louisiana, Missouri, Indiana, and possibly other states.²⁰ None of these plans were ever carried out, but they show the interest of the citizens of these

²⁰ *Ibid.*, Chap. 10.

new states in education and also the importance which the academy held in American life.

The curriculum was broad and rather comprehensive in contrast to that of the Latin Grammar School. As the institution became more firmly established and was made a part of the educational system of the states, the curriculum assumed greater uniformity and organization. Usually the offerings were organized into two departments—the classical and the English. The classical was usually a four-year course and emphasized Latin and Greek, but English grammar, geography, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and ancient history were common offerings. Typical subjects in the English department included geography, rhetoric and composition, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, declamation, English grammar, ancient, modern, and American history, trigonometry, surveying, navigation, chemistry, natural philosophy, and logic. But in later years, especially after the public high school became the favored institution in most communities and states, the curriculum of the academy became classical in nature, and the institution became primarily a narrow, rigid college preparatory school, especially in New England and the eastern states. In fact, in the first report of the United States Commissioner of Education (1868), a principal of one of the Massachusetts academies vigorously maintained that the academy should carry the primary responsibility for preparing pupils for college and that the new public high school was not designed or prepared to undertake this task.²¹

The average age of the pupils was higher than that in the Latin grammar school. A large proportion of the pupils in many academies came from a distance. In due time dormitories were added to the schools for those living out of the community. Sports became a part of the activities of the school, and clubs and societies were organized. Many of them, particularly in the latter period of their popularity, accepted girls as students. Barnard presents figures to show that in 1850, at the height of their popularity, there were over 6,085 academies, enrolling 263,096 pupils.²²

CONTRIBUTION OF THE ACADEMY

Although the academy was superseded by a distinctly new American secondary school, it nevertheless contributed significantly to the advancement of education in this country. It was a popular institution in

²¹ Charles Hammond, "New England Academies and Classical Schools," in *Report of the Commissioner of Education: 1867-1868* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1868), pp. 403-429.

²² "Educational Statistics of the United States in 1850," *American Journal of Education*, 1:368 (March, 1856).

its heyday because it endeavored to serve the needs of the people, particularly the middle classes engaged in commerce, agriculture, manufacturing, and the trades. Although the New England colonies had unsuccessfully tried to force the people to establish the grammar school, the citizens willingly banded together to found academies. And in the other sections of the country, which previously had had few provisions for secondary education, the academy flourished. Thus it raised the educational standards of the people and engendered a rising interest in secondary education.

Its break with the classical tradition and the development of a broad curriculum laid the foundation for modern secondary education. The development of the academy is further evidence of the growth of a democratic conception of man and society, for it exemplified a method whereby the people could band together to achieve commonly accepted purposes. It stood as a symbol of the principle that the common people, rather than a privileged few, were to be the beneficiaries of education. Secondary education was accepted as the prerogative of the people, and the citizens saw to it that provisions were made for the education of their youngsters. A further step was the acceptance of girls into the secondary schools.

Even though some of the academies were established and controlled by church groups, the fact that many others were independently governed served to free secondary education of sectarian control. Moreover, since many of them received public funds in one manner or another, the principle of public support of secondary education was strengthened. Yet this institution did not become the capstone of the common school system of this great, vigorous, democratic people.

The Establishment of the American High School

The first American public high school was established in Boston in 1821 in response to an interest on the part of the citizens in new educational opportunities for their children. But its antecedents were much earlier. The brief sketches above show that the idea of public schools under public control and financed in part by public funds had been accepted in many colonies and later in the states; the idea of a secondary school that provided a curriculum of interest to the youth of the more common classes of people had been accepted; and state systems of free, public elementary schools had already been established in most states. In fact, many of the elementary schools were adding a higher department, sometimes called a "grammar school." Connecticut passed a law in 1798 that permitted a school district, upon approval by two thirds of the voters, to establish a "higher" school to instruct

youth in English and other subjects, including Greek and Latin, if any one desired them.²³

THE BOSTON ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL

The concepts basic to the founding of this new school in Boston are well stated in the report adopted by the Boston town meeting on January 15, 1821:

The present system, in the opinion of the Committee, requires still further amendment. The studies that are pursued at the English grammar schools are merely elementary, and more time than is necessary is devoted to their acquisition. A scholar is admitted at seven, and is dismissed at fourteen years of age; thus seven years are expended in the acquisition of a degree of knowledge, which with ordinary diligence and a common capacity, may be easily and perfectly acquired in five. . . . This evil, therefore, should be removed, by enlarging the present system. . . .

Nor are these the only existing evils. The mode of education now adopted, and the branches of knowledge that are taught at our English grammar schools, are not sufficiently extensive nor otherwise calculated to bring the powers of the mind into operation nor to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of those stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed. A parent who wishes to give a child an education that shall fit him for active life, and shall serve as a foundation for eminence in his profession, whether Mercantile or Mechanical, is under the necessity of giving him a different education from any which our public schools can now furnish. Hence, many children are separated from their parents and sent to private academies in this vicinity, to acquire that instruction which cannot be obtained at the public seminaries. Thus, many parents, who contribute largely to the support of these institutions, are subjected to heavy expense for the same object, in other towns.

The Committee, for these and many other weighty considerations that might be offered, and in order to render the present system of public education more nearly perfect, are of the opinion that an additional School is required. They therefore recommend the founding of a seminary which shall be called the English Classical School, and submit the following as a general outline of a plan for its organization and of the course of studies to be pursued.

1st. That the term of time for pursuing the course of studies proposed, be three years.

2ndly. That the School be divided into three classes, and one year be assigned to the studies of each class.

3rdly. That the age of admission be not less than twelve years.

4thly. That the school be for Boys exclusively. . . .

²³ B. A. Hinsdale (comp.), "Documents Illustrative of American Educational History," *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1892-93* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1895), II, 1225-1414.

The Studies of the First Class to be as Follows:

Composition.	Declamation
Reading from the most approved authors.	Geography
Exercises in Criticism; comprising critical analyses of the language, grammar, and style of the best English authors, their errors & beauties.	Arithmetic continued

The Studies of the Second Class

Composition.	Continued	Geometry.
Reading.		Plane Trigonometry; and its application to mensuration of Heights and Distances.
Exercises in Criticism.		Navigation.
Declamation.		Surveying.
Algebra.		Mensuration of Superficies & Solids.
Ancient and Modern History and Chronology.		Forensic Discussions.
Logic.		

The Studies of the Third Class

Composition;	Continued	Natural Philosophy, including Astronomy;
Exercises in Criticism;		Moral and Political Philosophy. ²⁴
Declamation;		
Mathematics;		
Logic;		
History; particularly that of the United States;		

Thus we have the rationale for a new secondary school. The high school was not founded because of discontent with the program of the academy, as the academy had previously been established in protest against the Latin grammar school; rather the high school was an effort to make the advantages of the academy available to youth generally, since some parents were not able to send their children to an academy. As the value of an education became understood and appreciated by the people, it seemed only natural to our democratically minded forefathers to make it available to all who wished to benefit. The school opened in May, 1821, with a membership of over one hundred pupils. It should be noted that the English Grammar Schools referred to in the report of the committee are not the same type of school as the Latin Grammar Schools established in early colonial days. These were part of the common school system—an upper elementary school that ac-

²⁴ Quoted in Brown, *op. cit.*, pp. 299-301.

cepted children after they were able to read and write, much as we refer to the grammar grades today.

The minutes of the Boston school committee for 1824 refer to the school as the English High School, the name by which it came to be known, rather than to its original name, the English Classical School. The change in name was probably due to several factors: for one thing the school was not a classical school and made no pretense of offering a classical curriculum, so another name was desirable; secondly, a university professor, John Griscom, from New York, had written rather extensively in a Boston journal in 1824 about the Edinburgh High School, an institution that had already had a long and distinguished history in Scotland. Griscom proposed that a high school be established in New York. Indeed, such a school was opened in 1825 by a private society known as the "High-School Society." In any case, the name "high school" is the one by which this new kind of school became known as it spread throughout the country.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

Boston opened a high school for girls, based on the monitorial system which was then receiving some support in this country, but the school committee closed the school two years later because it was unable to afford the costs of providing accommodations for all that sought admission. Other towns in New England soon followed the lead of Boston and established high schools, among them being Plymouth, Salem, Worcester, and Lowell. A permanent basis for the high school was provided in the first high school law in the United States, passed by Massachusetts in 1826. True, the law does not call for the establishment of high schools by name, but the law provides for a school that would constitute such an institution. The law required: "In every city, town, or district, containing five hundred families, or householders . . . shall also be provided with a master of good morals, competent to instruct . . . in the history of the United States, bookkeeping by single entry, geometry, surveying, algebra." In towns of four thousand or more inhabitants the master was required in addition to be able to teach Latin, Greek, history, rhetoric, and logic. This law was not completely carried out, and by 1840 only 16 of the 44 towns that were required to maintain such schools actually had complied with the law, but by 1850 42 of the 76 towns had established high schools and by 1865, 88 of 130 towns.²⁵

This period and until well after the Civil War was the heyday of

²⁵ Alexander J. Inglis, *The Rise of the High School in Massachusetts* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911).

the academy; the public high school developed slowly. Many citizens throughout the states were reluctant to support public high schools when the privately operated academies were meeting the needs of many youth for secondary education. Some private groups, such as the High-School Society in New York, opened schools designated as "high schools." Many of the academies had gained considerable prestige, and families of social standing in the communities would usually send their children to these schools, especially if they were college-bound. The influence of the churches was also a factor, since they controlled many of the academies.

Nevertheless, the public high school did develop throughout the nation. In Pennsylvania, establishment at first was by special legislation, and under such enactments Philadelphia opened its Central High School in 1838. Similarly, Harrisburg (1837), Pittsburgh (1849), and Easton (1850) were authorized to establish high schools. A general law was enacted in 1854. During the period from 1847 to 1853, ten public high schools were authorized by special acts in New York, and the Free School Act of 1853 gave general authorization for the establishment of graded schools, which could include a high school. However, a law authorizing the establishment of free, public high schools was not passed until 1864. In the New England states other than Massachusetts, establishment was by individual school committees in some of the large cities, although much opposition developed in most instances and the establishment of the school was often delayed for a number of years. But high schools are to be found in each of these states prior to the Civil War. Baltimore opened its Central High School in 1839 and Charleston (South Carolina) likewise opened a high school that same year, although it charged a tuition fee of \$40.

In such new states of the West as Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and California, high schools were opened in many of the larger cities, often under special legislative approval at first and later under general authorization. In some instances, the high school could not be founded until a petition of citizens was submitted, signatures of as many as two thirds of the voters being required. Suffice it to say here that most of the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Western states had passed laws by 1860 that authorized the establishment of high schools on one basis or another. The movement developed much more slowly in the South, where the establishment of a state-wide public system of secondary education is of a relatively recent origin. It should be noted that in many a community throughout the country, an academy already in operation was taken over by the board of education and converted to a public high school. Other academies often became colleges or normal schools for the training of teachers.

SPREAD OF THE HIGH SCHOOL MOVEMENT

It is difficult to present statistics on the growth of the high school; first, because no systematic effort was made to gather them in these early decades (the United States Bureau of Education was not created until 1867), but, secondly, because the term "high school" was rather loosely used to designate schools of varying types and levels of work. In the school year 1900-1901, the United States Commissioner of Education directed an inquiry to the superintendents of schools in all cities over 25,000 in population asking each the date when his city first opened a public high school. He received replies from 142 superintendents of the 160 questioned. The tabulations show that 28 of these 142 cities had established high schools by the year 1850, 41 cities established their high schools during the period 1851 to 1860, 32 cities from 1861 to 1870, and 41 cities after 1870.²⁶

But we must remember that many of the cities included in this study in 1900 did not even exist during part of this period; hence these figures are likely to give an erroneous picture of the situation. To find out the extent to which the larger cities then in existence had actually established high schools prior to the Civil War, we tabulated only those cities included in the 1900-1901 report that had a population of 25,000 or more in the 1860 United States Census. Of these 27 cities for which the superintendents of schools gave the dates for the founding of the first public high school in their city, all but 4 had established such institutions by 1860:

*The Date of Establishment of the First Public High School
in Cities of 25,000 or More Population in 1860*

Connecticut		Massachusetts	
Hartford	1847	Boston	1634 ^b
New Haven	1859	Cambridge	1838
Illinois		Lowell	1831
Chicago	1856	Michigan	
Kentucky		Detroit	1844
Louisville	1856	Missouri	
Louisiana		St. Louis	1853
New Orleans	1843	New Jersey	
Maine		Jersey City	1872
Portland	1821	Newark	1854
Maryland		New York	
Baltimore	1839 ^a	Albany	1868

²⁶ U.S. Commissioner of Education, *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1900-1901* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1902), Vol. II.

New York			
Buffalo	1854	Pennsylvania	
New York	1849	Philadelphia	1838
Rochester	1859	Pittsburgh	1854
Syracuse	1855	Rhode Island	
Troy	1854	Providence	1843
Ohio			
Cincinnati	1847	Wisconsin	
Cleveland	1846	Milwaukee	1868
		District of Columbia	
		Washington, D.C.	1877

^a Date not given in the report, but other sources give this date.

^b Date given in the report; obviously refers to the (Latin) Grammar School, but first public high school founded in 1821.

In addition, we know from other records that a number of cities with less than 25,000 population had established public high schools prior to 1860. The *Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1904* gives the date of establishment for all of the 7,230 public high schools that submitted reports to the commissioner. A tabulation from this report shows that 321 high schools had been organized by 1860; by 1889-1890, 2,526 public high schools were in existence; and fifteen years later, 7,230. However, the report shows that many of the high schools listed even as late as 1904 offered only one, two, or three years of work. But the extent to which the public school outdistanced the private academy is dramatically shown by the fact that in 1889-1890 there were 1,632 academies, compared with 2,526 high schools, but by 1903-1904 the number of academies had declined to 1,606 and the number of high schools had risen to 7,230. The battle for a free public secondary school had been won in the period following the Civil War.

But the battle had to be fought and won in thousands of individual communities throughout America, in the state legislatures, and in the courts. Many citizens were still unwilling to pay taxes for the education of youth in free, public institutions, and many still felt that it was unnecessary and unwise to attempt to educate the children of the common people beyond the elementary level. It will be recalled from Chapter 2 that only a small percentage of the youth attended high school; thus, many people regarded it as a school maintained at public expense for the children of the more privileged citizens, and they couldn't understand why they should be taxed for such a purpose.

One of the most important milestones in this struggle for the establishment of a system of free, public high schools was the decision rendered by the Supreme Court of Michigan in 1874 in what is known as the Kalamazoo decision. Taxpayers brought suit against the School District of Kalamazoo to restrain the district from collecting taxes for the support of a high school and for payment of the salary of the superintendent

of schools. The complainants charged that although there were no constitutional provisions expressly prohibiting such taxation, the whole course of legislation and the general understanding of the citizens had been that such instruction in the high school, particularly in classical and modern languages, should be regarded as not of a practical nature and therefore not necessary instruction for the benefit of the people at large. Such instruction was asserted to be for the accomplishments of the few, to be paid for by those who sought them, and not to be supported by a general tax.

In rendering its decision the court reviewed at some length the history of school legislation in that state and the efforts of the citizens to make education available to all the people. The law of 1850 had specifically provided for the establishment of free schools in every district of the state, and for a state university. The court felt this indicated that the people wanted a complete system of education from the primary schools to the university, including, of course, the high school. The court concluded that it could find no reason for restricting the primary school districts in the branches of knowledge to be taught or the grades of instruction to be given, provided that the voters consented in the established manner to raise taxes for the purpose.

This historic decision contributed greatly to the advancement of public secondary education in this country. In effect, the court ruled that secondary education in all of its aspects was a part of the common school program of education for the children of America, and that the local community through its board of education was free to develop the kind of program it wanted for its boys and girls. The Kalamazoo decision became the precedent for similar decisions in other states and contributed to the enactment of legislation that established the high school as a regular part of the American common school system.

It may be interesting for the student of secondary education to reflect on the development of the junior or community college in this country during the past half century as a rather parallel situation in many respects. In a number of states, aggressive school districts, in the absence of either permissive or restrictive legislation, took steps to extend the program of education of the community to include grades 13 and 14, often organized as a separate junior college. In due time most of these states have passed laws authorizing the establishment of such institutions. In other states, legislation came first, and from the outset junior colleges developed in a legal manner. In some states, special enactments authorized specific institutions, just as happened in the case of high schools in some states prior to the enactment of general laws. But some states still do not permit local districts to establish junior colleges. Most states authorize or require the collection of tuition from the stu-

dents, as some did in the earliest days of high schools. Many educators foresee the day, and a not too far distant one, when education at the thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade level will also become a part of the common school program, provided free to all youth who desire to attend.

Thus, in this brief sketch of the development of secondary education in this country we see that by the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the American people, during an evolutionary period of two and one-half centuries, had created a distinctive educational system that gives expression to the democratic traditions of the culture. The public high school, as a part of a unitary system of education, is indigenous to this country; it reflects the ambitions, dreams, aspirations, hopes, and beliefs of a democratic people; it is based on a concept that man is perfectible. As secondary educators it is our obligation to assist in the fulfillment of this American dream, to make this great American high school the agency for enabling every person to fulfill his potentialities and to be truly the kind of person he is capable of becoming.

CURRICULUM OF THE EARLY AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

The functions and purposes of the early high school were well stated in a school report published in 1838:

By a Public or Common High School, is intended a public or common school for the older and more advanced scholars of the community in which the same is located, in a course of instruction adapted to their age, and intellectual and moral wants, and, to some extent, to their future pursuits in life. It is common or public in the same sense in which the district school, or any lower grade of school established and supported under a general law and for the public benefit, is common or public. . . . To be truly a public school, a High School must embrace in its course of instruction studies which can be more profitably pursued there than in public schools of a lower grade, or which gather their pupils from a more circumscribed territory, and as profitably as in any private school of the same pretensions.²⁷

And this new school did offer a varied and broad program of studies. We have already listed the subjects proposed for the first high school. As the high school movement spread, the curriculum became even more inclusive. Inglis reports that by 1861 seventy-three different subjects were offered in the high schools of sixty-three Massachusetts towns.²⁸ The superintendent of schools in Chicago, in describing the high school established in that city in 1856, listed the offerings of the school in its first year as follows:

²⁷ Quoted in Henry Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, 3:185 (March, 1857), but original source not given.

²⁸ Inglis, *op. cit.*

English Department

1. Preparatory studies reviewed, using the text-books authorized in the Grammar Schools
2. Warren's Physical Geography
3. Weber's Universal History
4. Ancient Geography
5. Greenleaf's National Arithmetic
6. Greenleaf's Algebra
7. Davie's Legendre
8. Plane and Spherical Trigonometry
9. Mensuration
10. Gillespie's Surveying
11. Navigation
12. Crittenden's Elementary Book-keeping
13. Botany
14. Burritt's Geography of the Heavens
15. Higher Astronomy
16. Cutter's Physiology
17. Tate's Natural Philosophy
18. Youman's Chemistry
19. Geology and Mineralogy
20. Rhetoric
21. Logic
22. Wayland's Political Economy
23. Principles of Government
24. Wayland's Mental Philosophy
25. Wayland's Moral Science
26. Etymology
27. English Literature
28. Hillard's First Class Reader
29. Drawing
30. Vocal Music
31. German or French
32. Recitations and Compositions

Normal Department

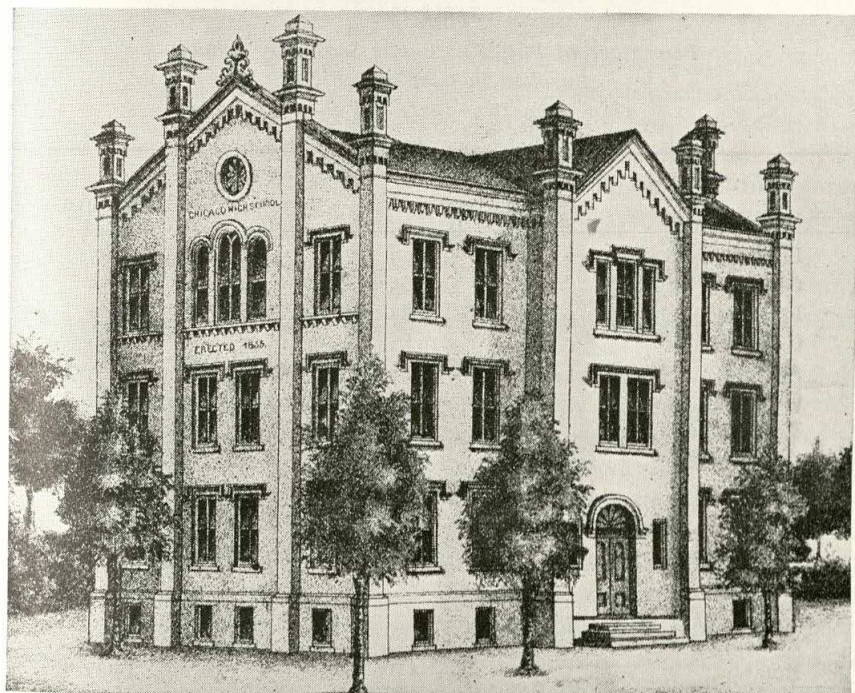
- Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 32,
 Theory and Practice of Teaching
 German and French, both optional

Classical Department

- Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 14, 16, 17, 26, 28, 30, 32
 Andrews' and Zimpt's Latin Grammars
 Harkness' Arnold's First and Second Latin Lessons
 Arnold's Latin Prose Composition
 Andrew's Caesar
 Johnson's Cicero
 Bowen's Virgil
 Andrew's Latin Lexicon
 Anthon's Classical Dictionary
 Crosby's Greek Grammar
 Crosby's Greek Lessons
 Arnold's Greek Prose Composition
 Felton's Greek Reader
 Boise's Xenophon's Anabasis
 Owen's Homer's Iliad
 Liddel and Scott's Greek Lexicon 29

²⁰ W. H. Wells, "Public High School in Chicago," *American Journal of Education*, 3:536 (June, 1857).

This example illustrates adequately the origins of the high school as an extension of the grammar school and as an institution that would offer instruction "adapted . . . to their future pursuits in life." And what a contrast it is to the classical, humanistic curriculum of the Latin grammar school.



Chicago Public High School, 1856. The first public high school in Chicago was opened in 1856, in the building illustrated above. As the city grew and other high schools were established the name was changed to Central High School. (Courtesy of the Chicago Public Schools.)

The offerings of the American high school at the turn of the century and the percentage of pupils enrolled in each subject are given in Table 19.

Some interesting shifts during this twenty-year period in the proportion of pupils enrolled in various subjects are noted, particularly the increase in Latin, history, and mathematics, and the decline in the sciences. From other evidence we know that many more subjects were included in the program of the school in 1890; hence pupils were offered a much greater variety of subjects than appears in the table. In fact, the high school of this period offered a number of subjects for only a part of the

school term, perhaps for fourteen weeks or for some similar period.³⁰

As the high school became more and more a part of American life in each succeeding decade and played an increasingly more important role in preparing students for college, replacing the academy in most communities, it was subjected to much critical appraisal, particularly by

TABLE 19
*Percentage of Pupils in Public Secondary Schools
Enrolled in Certain Subjects,
1889-1890, 1900-1901, and 1909-1910*

SUBJECT	PER CENT ENROLLED		
	1889-1890	1900-1901	1909-1910
Latin	34.69	50.45	49.05
Greek	3.05	2.63	0.75
French	5.84	8.29	9.90
German	10.51	15.45	23.69
Algebra	45.40	56.96	56.85
Geometry	21.33	27.83	30.87
Trigonometry	<i>a</i>	2.04	1.87
Astronomy	<i>a</i>	2.34	0.53
Physics	22.21	18.40	14.61
Chemistry	10.10	7.56	6.89
Physical geography	<i>a</i>	22.83	19.34
Geology	<i>a</i>	3.44	1.16
Physiology	<i>a</i>	26.60	15.32
Zoology	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	8.02
Botany	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	16.83
Agriculture	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	4.66
Domestic economy	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	3.78
Psychology	<i>a</i>	2.19	0.96
Rhetoric	<i>a</i>	40.71	57.10
English literature	<i>a</i>	45.08	57.09
History	27.31	38.91	55.03
Civics	<i>a</i>	20.97	15.55
Number of schools reporting	2,526	5,442	8,097

^a Not included in original data; not known whether subject was not taught or enrollments were not obtained by the commissioner.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Education, *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1910* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1911), p. 1139.

³⁰ For a description of the high school program of this period by a teacher see Brown, *op. cit.*, Chap. 19.

college officials as well as by leading educators. From this dissatisfaction, as well as from the effects of new forces arising in American life, evolved a more uniform and systematic curriculum for the institution. By 1900 the famous report of the Committee of Ten, the new accreditation practices of the colleges, and the effect of college entrance requirements themselves, jointly reinforcing one another in their impact, had brought about a considerable change in the curriculum. For at least the first two decades of the new century the high school was under the domination of the colleges, but since World War I the American secondary school has again sought to offer a more comprehensive program, such as would serve best the educational needs of all youth. These and other influences will be analyzed in the next chapter in relation to their effect on the curriculum, but first we should trace significant trends in the recent development of the high school.

Developments in Secondary Education During the Twentieth Century

The twentieth century has been a most exciting one in the development of secondary education in this country. It was during this period that the great American high school emerged as a further fulfillment of the democratic concept of a universal common school that would provide every boy and girl an opportunity to develop his own individual potentialities to the fullest and to become the most competent citizen of which he was capable. The first part of the century witnessed a cultural revolution that redefined the function of the secondary school. About mid-century, after the idea of universal secondary schooling had been firmly established as a part of the American culture, attention shifted, as was discussed in Chapter 3, to the problem of providing a really appropriate and adequate education for each individual young person in terms of his own potentialities and needs, yet collectively providing the same opportunity for all youth in the land. This endeavor is one of the most significant yet challenging and creative programs ever undertaken by man. No other nation of the world has even attempted it.

Efforts to define the function of the public high school in our American democracy are set off by two very significant events in American education—the report of the Committee of Ten in 1893 and the report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918. In the short quarter of a century between these two momentous reports, the American people, through their educational leaders, gave expression to the essential role to be fulfilled by the secondary school in our culture. It is during this period of development in secondary education that the American high school as we know it today took its present form and structure.

THE COMMITTEE OF TEN

Following the establishment of the high school as a part of the American educational system in the second half of the nineteenth century, many educators, both those serving in the high school itself and those in the colleges, became disturbed about the chaotic nature of the program of the high school. Up to that time, it had grown more or less like Topsy. Great variation existed throughout the country in the subjects offered, time devoted to various subjects, length of school term, numbers of years included in the high school, content included in the subjects offered, and methods of instruction.

College officials often felt that graduates of the high school were not adequately prepared for college, yet high school officials and boards of education were caught in a multiplicity of forces, such as the desire for practical and functional training as opposed to the traditional classical curriculum, the increase in knowledge and the new emphasis on science which gave rise to the introduction of new courses in the school, and the need to serve students who expected to enter college as well as those who did not. Much of this confusion grew out of the wide variation that existed in college admission requirements. As the public high schools endeavored more and more to serve the needs of the college-bound students, they were placed in a difficult situation in trying to offer subjects that would meet the diverse entrance requirements of colleges and universities. High schools interested in preparing their pupils for colleges and scientific schools had to offer as many types of programs as there were colleges which its pupils entered.

A standing committee of the National Council of Education, the Committee on Secondary Education, with James H. Baker, principal of the Denver High School as chairman, investigated the matter and made a report in 1891. Recognizing the scope of the problem, the committee recommended that the National Council, in conjunction with its parent organization, the National Educational Association, sponsor a conference of school and college teachers for each of the principal subject areas. These conferences were to consider the proper limits of the subject, methods of instruction, time allotment, and methods of testing achievement. A special committee, composed of ten educators, was named to arrange and organize these conferences, and in turn to receive the reports of each conference and to make a final report to the National Council. Thus, the famous Committee of Ten was created. Its final report has often been called the most significant document in American education, but, as we shall see from the vantage point of today, many of us think a report of a later commission to be even more important in the evolution of the American school system.

Charles W. Eliot, the great president of Harvard, was chairman of the committee, officially designated as the Committee on Secondary School Studies, but usually known as the Committee of Ten. It was composed of five college presidents, one college professor, three secondary school principals, and the United States Commissioner of Education. Conferences were organized in nine subject fields, and ten educators were appointed to participate in each conference. Of the total of ninety members, forty-seven were college teachers or college presidents, forty-two were secondary school people, and one was a government official.

Although the committee was established to study the possibility of developing uniformity in college entrance requirements, it wisely foresaw that the first and basic question was to determine the function of the high school, to plan a suitable program for fulfilling that function, and then to proceed to the problem of college admission for graduates from such a school. The Committee of Ten had to face the most crucial of all questions in American secondary education: What is the unique and distinctive function of the American high school? For example, in setting up the nine conferences for the major subject areas, the committee instructed the members to discuss and report on these questions:

1. In the school course of study extending approximately from the age of six years to eighteen years—a course including the periods of both elementary and secondary instruction—at what age should the study which is the subject of the Conference be first introduced? . . .
4. What topics, or parts, of the subject may reasonably be covered during the whole course? . . .
6. In what form and to what extent should the subject enter into college requirements for admission? . . .
7. Should the subject be treated differently for pupils who are going to college, for those who are going to a scientific school, and for those who, presumably, are going to neither? . . .
9. Can any description be given of the best method of teaching this subject throughout the school course?³¹

This was still the formative period of the secondary school, and this group of one hundred educators, dominated by college people, had difficulty in spelling out clearly and unmistakably the primary function of the high school. Judged by our concepts today, the report of the committee seems contradictory and inconsistent in major respects. But this simply illustrates well the extremely perplexing duty facing all educators in America in defining a proper role for the secondary school, particularly

³¹ Committee on Secondary School Studies, *Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies Appointed at the Meeting of the National Education Association, July 9, 1892* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1893), p. 6.

when secondary education in all other countries of the world was conceived as a highly academic program designed to train an elite group for positions of leadership. As to basic function, the committee stated:

The secondary schools of the United States, taken as a whole, do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for colleges. Only an insignificant percentage of the graduates of these schools go to colleges or scientific schools. Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school. . . . A secondary school programme intended for national use must therefore be made for those children whose education is not to be pursued beyond the secondary school. The preparation of a few pupils for college or scientific school should in the ordinary secondary school be the incidental, and not the principal object. At the same time, it is obviously desirable that the colleges and scientific schools should be accessible to all boys and girls who have completed creditably the secondary school course.³²

Moreover, the Committee of Ten and the ninety members of the conferences tackled a corollary issue of unmistakable significance to the future development of secondary education in this country—the establishment of a unitary system of education for all pupils, with the secondary school serving as the vital link between elementary and higher education. As noted in earlier sections of this chapter, the private academies, particularly the well-established, endowed academies, had accepted fully the function of preparing their pupils for admission to the colleges; the high school had been established to provide a more practical and functional education that would extend the program of the grammar school. Was America to follow the European pattern and operate one system of secondary schools for youngsters who would enter the market place, the factories, and the shops or till the soil, and another system of select, tuition schools that would serve the function of preparing pupils for college?

Displaying a keen understanding of the issue, the committee rejected the idea of a dual system of secondary education, and formulated a program that it believed would enable the public high school to serve both functions—to prepare for life those not going to college and at the same time to prepare properly those who did go to college. Thereby the public school was a unit in the total program of education, and it would not be necessary for the college-bound to “prepare” in the private academies, as was necessary in European countries, or to take a special course in the high school.

Consistent with current educational theory of the times, the com-

³² *Ibid.*, pp. 51-52.

mittee felt that the best preparation for life, or for college, was the training of the intellect and the development of the powers of reasoning. We today would regard the program of studies the committee recommended as very narrow and, in fact, a highly academic, classical curriculum, but the committee believed that such a program would constitute the best preparation for life. Perhaps, as some present-day writers maintain, the committee, in spite of its high-sounding plea for a program of secondary education that prepared for life, really was devising a plan for making the secondary school the handmaiden of the colleges and simply imploring them to teach subjects that really prepared for college although disguised as preparing for life. Be that as it may, the basic principle that the American secondary school existed to prepare young people for life was accepted without question, even by college presidents. The big issue still to be debated in American life was how the high school could best prepare for life; it remained a subject of discussion throughout the deliberations of a number of other major national committees and many educational conferences, and the topic of innumerable addresses and books during the next half century—a question that obviously is still unsettled today.

For the Committee of Ten, no differentiation was to be made in the program for pupils who planned to enter college and those who would go directly into adult life. The committee emphatically proclaimed that “every subject which is taught at all in the secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or what point his education cease.”³³ In preparing the pupil for life, or for college, the committee extolled the virtues of intellectual discipline. This was consistent with the generally accepted theories of education of the time, and reflected the humanistic tradition. The subjects approved by the committee were all to be

taught consecutively and thoroughly, and would all be carried on in the same spirit; they would all be used for training the powers of observation, memory, expression, and reasoning; they would all be good to that end, although differing among themselves in quality and substance. . . . Every youth who entered college would have spent four years in studying a few subjects thoroughly; and, on the theory that all subjects are to be considered equivalent in educational rank for the purpose of admission to college, it would make no difference which subjects he had chosen from the programme—he would have had four years of strong and effective mental training.³⁴

To carry out its avowed purpose of defining the subjects that should be included in the high school program, the length of time to be devoted

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 52–53.

to each, and the place in the program it should be introduced, the committee recommended for the secondary school the program of studies listed in Table 20.

Utilizing this basic program, the committee proposed four high school courses, the Classical, the Latin-Scientific, the Modern Languages, and the English. The Classical would require three languages—Latin,

TABLE 20
*The High School Program Recommended
by the Committee of Ten*

<i>1st Secondary School Year</i>		<i>2nd Secondary School Year</i>	
Latin	5 periods	Latin	4 periods
English Literature 2	} 4	Greek	5
English Composition 2		English Literature 2	} 4
German (or French)	5	English Composition 2	
Algebra	4	German, continued	4
History of Italy, Spain, and France	3	French, begun	5
Applied Geography	} 4	Algebra ^a 2	} 4
(European political-conti-		Geometry 2	
ental and oceanic flora		Botany or Zoology	4
and fauna)	4	English History to 1688	3
<i>3rd Secondary School Year</i>		<i>4th Secondary School Year</i>	
Latin	4 periods	Latin	4 periods
Greek	4	Greek	4
English Literature 2	} 4	English Literature 2	} 4
English Composition 1		English Composition 1	
Rhetoric 1	} 4	English Grammar 1	} 4
German		German	
French	4	French	4
Algebra ^a 2	} 4	Trigonometry	} 2
Geometry 2		Higher Algebra	
Physics	4	Chemistry	4
History, English and American	3	History (intensive) and Civil Government	3
Astronomy ½ year	} 3	Geology or Physiography ½ year	} 4
Meteorology ½ year		Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene ½ year	

^a Option of bookkeeping and commercial arithmetic.

Source: Committee on Secondary School Studies, *Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies Appointed at the Meeting of the National Education Association, July 9, 1892* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1893), p. 41.

Greek, and one modern; the Latin-Scientific, Latin and one modern language; the Modern Languages, two modern languages; and the English, one foreign language.

Thus we see that even though the committee subscribed to the point of view that the high school existed to prepare pupils for life, it recommended a curriculum that was based on two fundamental concepts of education that many of us would reject today: the classical, humanistic basis of secondary education; and the complete acceptance of the principle of mental discipline—train the mind to reason, to deal with abstractions, and disregard the significance of the subject matter for the pupil.

During the ensuing decade, the report of the Committee of Ten profoundly influenced the development of secondary education in this country. For years, the United States Commissioner of Education included in his annual report a table summarizing the program recommended by the committee. In 1910 he stated:

In 1893 that committee made its report to the National Education Association, and for seventeen years its recommendations have been the inspiration of many thousands of high-school principals and teachers whose aim has been to live up to the model courses of study arranged by that committee.³⁵

However, the report of the Committee of Ten still left many unsolved problems in secondary education, particularly articulation with higher institutions and the development of a satisfactory basis for admitting high school graduates to college, especially those who took the "English" or "Scientific" courses rather than the "Classical." Rejecting the idea that any subject was good if it was taught thoroughly so that the mind would be trained, many educators of the period did not accept the idea that the choice of subjects in high school was not an important consideration. From its earliest years the high school had offered a number of practical and functional subjects, and many high school officials were not yet ready to throw out these subjects and adopt the restricted program of the Committee of Ten. A principal of a large city high school stated the case for a more practical curriculum:

Table III [Table 20] provides no place for music, drawing, elocution, spelling, penmanship, etc. Such studies as stenography and manual training are coming into high schools and are coming to stay, and we might as well recognize the fact. Another and a very different class of subjects, such as political economy, psychology, and ethics has long been taught in secondary schools, and I am not prepared to recommend their abolition from the curriculum. Remembering that

³⁵ U.S. Bureau of Education, *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1910* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1911), p. 1133.

more than 90 per cent of high school pupils may not go to college, I consider such subjects far more valuable than astronomy, meteorology, or physiography.³⁶

During the ensuing quarter of a century, with the work of the Committee of Ten as an example of a comprehensive approach to the study of urgent problems in education, the National Educational Association and its constituent organizations, the National Council of Education, the Department of Superintendence, and the Department of Secondary Education, appointed a number of other committees that contributed substantially to this basic issue of defining the proper role and function of the American high school. Among the more important of these committees were the

Committee on College Entrance Requirements, 1895-1899

Committee on Economy of Time in Education, 1908-1913; 1911-1919

Committee on Six-Year Courses, 1905-1909

Committee on the Articulation of High School and College, 1910-1911

Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1913-1918

These committees hammered out much of the present form and structure of American secondary education—the development of the six-year program of secondary education and the organization of the junior high school, the standardization of college entrance requirements, the development of the “unit” as the measure of the quantity of a subject, and, finally, the definition of the basic function of the high school that is commonly accepted today.

THE COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

This committee, composed of five representatives of the secondary schools and five of higher institutions, was appointed in 1895 to bring about “better understanding between the secondary schools and the colleges and universities in regard to requirements for admission.” It made its report in 1899. The basic problem facing the committee was the same as that which confronted the Committee of Ten—to make the high school truly a full-fledged part of a single unitary system of education, so that it not only would fulfill its own unique functions adequately, but would also provide the kind of education that would enable those who desired to continue into institutions of higher learning. The committee clearly recognized the basic problem confronting the public schools of this country at the turn of the century, as was stated by its chairman, Dr. A. F. Nightingale, superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools:

³⁶ O. D. Robinson, “The Report from the Point of View of the Large Mixed High School,” in U.S. Bureau of Education, *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1892-1893* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1895), p. 1490.

The secondary schools are the schools of the people, and the people have demanded, and in still more effectual ways will demand, that their courses must be practical, beneficial, disciplinary. . . .

The public high school can become a link in the golden chain of our American system of education only when the colleges begin where the best high schools leave off; otherwise the gap between the common school and the college must be filled by the private schools, patronized by the children of the rich, and the sons and daughters of the great middle class must be deprived of the benefits of a higher education because, forsooth, they have failed to fulfill some specific requirement of the college they would otherwise enter. I have faith, however, that these conflicting requirements will be harmonized, their incongruities removed, so that we may in the near future have a unified system of education, from kindergarten to the graduate school of the university, which will give to every child, without let or hindrance, the right of way for such an education as will best develop the power with which, in a plastic state, he has been endowed by the Infinite Architect.³⁷

The committee sought to settle the issue of how the programs of the high school and of the college could be properly articulated by performing two major functions: it listed a group of subjects that it considered proper for college admission and delineated the work to be covered in these and additional courses offered in the subject fields; and it defined a unit of measure that could be employed in determining the amount or quantity of work to be required by the colleges in those subjects.

To carry out the first function, the committee requested professional associations of teachers in the six basic fields of English, classical languages, modern languages, history, mathematics, and science to prepare recommendations on what should constitute the subject offerings in each of these fields and what should be included in a year's work in each subject. The reports of these professional groups comprise 140 pages of the report of the committee and present an extensive course of study for each subject field. The committee summarized these reports into a set of recommendations for offerings in each subject field.

The heart of the report then follows, in which the committee made these recommendations:

That, while the committee recognizes as suitable for recommendation by colleges for admission the several studies enumerated in this report, and while it also recognizes the principle of large liberty to the students in secondary schools, it does not believe in unlimited election, but especially emphasizes the importance of a certain number of constants in all secondary schools and in all requirements for admission to college.

³⁷ Committee on College Entrance Requirements, "Report," in National Educational Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1899 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1899), p. 636.

Resolved, That the committee recommends that the number of constants be recognized in the following proportion, namely:

four units in foreign languages (no languages accepted in less than two units),
two units in mathematics,
two in English,
one in history, and
one in science.³⁸

Thus was established the principle of constants in the secondary school program, a basic requirement in most secondary schools today.

The second contribution of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements was the establishment of the unit as a measure of the quantity of high school work. The term "unit" had already been used in educational circles, but this committee standardized it and gave it a common meaning: any subject outlined in the report of the committee, including the reports of associated professional groups, that was taught for at least four periods a week throughout the school year in a well-equipped school, under competent instruction, was to count as a unit of work for college admission. Thus, the committee felt that the subjects it had outlined in some detail in these six fields of study, when taught on this basis, constituted a national norm for purposes of defining college admission.

Although today we would probably consider the subjects recommended by the committee to be unduly academic, the tenor of the report indicates that this was an effort on the part of the public high schools to find a way whereby they could prepare their students for college, and yet have some measure of local freedom in determining the specific subjects to be offered in each field and in offering other subjects of a practical value, since only ten of the sixteen to eighteen units a pupil might take were specified as to fields. Rather than being a program imposed on the high schools by the colleges, these recommendations were designed to enable the high school to fit into a unitary system of education. In effect, the public school people were asking what they could do to formulate a program for the high school that would be acceptable to the colleges, but retain enough flexibility to adapt the program to local needs through a system of elective subjects.

It was at the invitation of the committee, half of whose members were public school people, that committees from the learned societies, composed almost exclusively of college professors, set down in systematic form what they considered to be appropriate content to be covered in each subject in their respective fields. Certainly, the program of the high school was to be in a large part dominated by the colleges, but it was a domination eagerly sought by the high schools at that time so that

³⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 660-661.

they could take their rightful place as a part of the unitary system of education, which the educators agreed was more desirable than the European system of bifurcated programs. Thus, by adopting the basic recommendations of these committees thousands of public school officials in practically every community of the United States once and for all accepted the principle of a unitary system of education, even though it meant, at least at the time, domination of the high school by the college. Subject enrollments listed in Table 19 (page 146) would indicate rather general acceptance of the plan.

COMMITTEE ON THE ARTICULATION OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

It was not long, however, before many secondary school people began to reflect that they might have sold their birthright for a mess of pottage, that by inviting the colleges to outline the kind of program they would accept for college admission they had capitulated to the colleges and were now under their complete domination. J. Stanley Brown, principal of the Joliet (Illinois) High School, had this to say in 1909:

We are come to the Rubicon. We have by rather slow processes of educational evolution reached a point where we, as representatives of the secondary schools of America, must proclaim *autonomy* for the public high school. The control, the policy, the direction of the high school, must be from within itself, not from without by some self-appointed, unlawfully constituted authority.³⁹

A year later (1910) the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association adopted a resolution, with only one dissenting vote, stating that whereas the high school must offer a wide range of subjects to meet the diversified interests of different students, and whereas manual training, commercial subjects, music, household arts, agriculture, and similar subjects were entitled to recognition as college entrance credits, the colleges should reduce entrance requirements in languages to only one language and recognize these other subjects as suitable for electives in the college admission requirements.

A Committee on the Articulation of High School and College was appointed to prepare a statement on the program that the high school should offer for college admission purposes. This committee of nine, composed entirely of public school people, except for one professor of education and one college dean, reported in 1911.

This committee railed against the rigid requirement of foreign lan-

³⁹ J. Stanley Brown, "The Autonomy of the High School," in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1909* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1909), p. 481.

guage and mathematics for college admission. It proposed the following alternative plans of college admission: ⁴⁰

	A	B	C
English	3	3	3
Foreign language	2	2	0
Mathematics	2	0	2
Social science	1	2	2
Natural science	1	2	2
	<hr/> 9	<hr/> 9	<hr/> 9
To which must be added to make another major	1 or 2	1	1
Total	<hr/> 10 or 11	<hr/> 10	<hr/> 10

The remaining five units could be elected from any well-taught courses, except that physical education and music were not to be included in the fifteen units. We had progressed a great deal in the eighteen years since the college people comprising the majority of the Committee of Ten outlined what they thought the high schools should teach.

The preliminary work had been done and the time was now propitious for a further step in the determination of the basic function of the secondary school in our society.

THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The culminating event in this twenty-five-year effort of the American people to define the function and purpose of the American high school was the work of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. To assist the high schools of the country in developing the "well-planned high-school courses" envisioned by the Committee on the Articulation of High School and College, that group recommended that committees be appointed to study the reorganization of the various high school subject fields. Twelve such committees were created by the National Education Association in 1912-1913. But the parent committee wisely foresaw that the work of these committees would be severely restricted if their purpose was solely to plan for better articulation with the colleges. Consequently, the committee recommended that a new organization be created to direct this study. Thus was established in 1913 the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, the most important group ever to give direction to secondary education in this country.

⁴⁰ Committee on the Articulation of High School and College, "Report," in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1911* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1911), p. 566.

The commission consisted of sixteen committees, one each for thirteen subject fields—agriculture, art, business education, classical languages, English, household arts, industrial arts, mathematics, modern languages, music, physical education, science, and social studies, one on organization and administration of secondary education, one on vocational guidance, and the original committee on articulation. A reviewing committee composed of all sixteen chairmen and ten members at large was appointed. It was the function of the reviewing committee to discuss the reports of the sixteen work committees and to give general direction to their activities. Eventually, each of the committees prepared recommendations for organizing instruction in their respective areas.

But the best-known document prepared by the commission is the statement of the cardinal principles of education. This report was prepared by the reviewing committee in an effort to give direction and guidance to the work committees. In what has become known as the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education, the commission thus defined the main objectives of education:

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home-membership
4. Vocation
5. Citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character ⁴¹

These, then, were the basic purposes to be achieved by the high school in a democracy. The commission believed that education "should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward noble ends." ⁴²

During this evolutionary period of American secondary education we as a people had established as basic principles for the development of secondary education in this country that (1) secondary education should be the privilege of all, not of just a select few; (2) the secondary school should be concerned with the all-round development of the pupil, not with just his intellectual development; (3) the educational system should be democratic in organization and structure, enabling every child to progress freely and without artificial restriction through an integrated, unitary program of education, not being barred by selective admission to advanced opportunities; and (4) the program of the secondary school

⁴¹ Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 35; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918), pp. 10-11.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 9.

should be varied and differentiated so that every child, regardless of his station or prospects in life, would benefit maximally in personal development and in the development of his capabilities to contribute to society, not being forced into a narrow, rigid program designed for a particular social class.

The forces in American life that brought about these developments in secondary education will be analyzed in greater detail in the next chapter, but a careful student of educational history recognizes the evolutionary process of this basic definition of the function of the school. The Committee of Ten had already acknowledged in 1893 that the public high school must serve the needs of the people, but it took numerous committees and many conferences during the ensuing quarter of a century before we came to a definition of what that means, educationally.

To this day, the seven Cardinal Principles of Education, embodying the basic objectives of education and the accompanying principles for developing a program of education to achieve these objectives, have guided the planning of the structure and program of secondary education. In the decades since they have been enunciated, we in secondary education have been busy developing the most satisfactory program for fulfilling these basic functions.

THE EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION

Almost twenty years elapsed before the National Education Association created another commission to study education in this country. Then in 1935 it appointed the Educational Policies Commission. No specific issue in education brought about the establishment of this commission, as had been true of those listed previously. The function of this new commission was to select various educational issues or matters of significance for study and then to issue policy statements on these topics. The basic pattern of education in this country had been determined; the work of this commission was further to clarify and define the role of the school in a democracy. A continuing body, the commission is composed of about twenty-five outstanding leaders in American education (the stature of the persons serving on the commission is attested by the fact that Dwight D. Eisenhower served on the commission for a time while President of Columbia University, as did James B. Conant, President of Harvard University, Alexander J. Stoddard, Superintendent of Schools in Philadelphia and in Los Angeles, and William Jansen, Superintendent of Schools in New York).

Among the more important reports or statements prepared by the commission are the following:

The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy, 1937
The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, 1938

- Learning the Ways of Democracy, 1940*
The Education of Free Men in American Democracy, 1941
Education for All American Youth, 1944 (revised edition, 1954)
Education of the Gifted, 1950
Public Education and the Future of America, 1955
Manpower and Education, 1956
Higher Education in a Decade of Decision, 1957
The Contemporary Challenge to American Education, 1958

The most significant of these publications for the secondary school teacher is *Education for All American Youth*. This book describes two hypothetical programs of secondary education, and by so doing presents a vivid picture of what secondary schools in this country should be like if they are to serve fully the functions envisioned by the entire succession of famous educational committees and commissions since the Committee of Ten—preparation of all youth for life in a democracy. The publication brought together in one statement a description of good practices found in secondary schools throughout the country, and thereby served to give direction and guidance to those responsible for planning programs of secondary education for all youth of a community.

One of the most important statements contained in the volume is a list of the "Common and Imperative Needs of Youth." This is a restatement in an expanded form of the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education—a statement of functions that proved to be valid for secondary education after a quarter of a century spent in implementing them in the schools of America.

During the four decades since the Cardinal Principles of Education were stated, no period of educational development has been without issues and problems that challenged the efforts of citizens and educators alike to solve. And today we still face major difficulties in providing the best possible program of education for all youth (see Chapter 3), but no one in American life seriously questions the validity of the functions of secondary education embodied in the Seven Cardinal Principles.

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Butts, R. Freeman, and Lawrence A. Cremin. *A History of Education in American Culture*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953.

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Inglis, Alexander J. *The Rise of the High School in Massachusetts*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911.

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An analysis of factors that have influenced the development of the American educational system.

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An excellent account of the development of the secondary school from Grecian times to the twentieth century.

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This book provides an excellent analysis of the historical development of the curriculum of the American secondary school.

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National Education Association, Committee on Secondary School Studies (Committee of Ten). *Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1893.

A most important source document on the history of secondary education, this report of the famous Committee of Ten presents the views of leading educators of the day on secondary education.

Thut, I. N. *The Story of Education: Philosophical and Historical Foundations*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957.

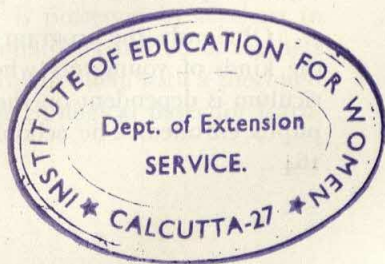
Traces the evolution of the American school, with emphasis on the philosophy of the school.

Vredevoe, Lawrence E. *An Introduction and Outline of Secondary Education*. Ann Arbor, Mich. Edwards Brothers, 1957.

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Wesley, Edgar B. *NEA: The First Hundred Years*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

Chapter 6 describes the activities and reports of the great national committees appointed by the NEA to study secondary education.



5

Factors That Shape American Secondary Education

The previous chapter pointed out that the form, structure, organization, and program of secondary education in this country have changed tremendously since the first secondary school was established more than three hundred years ago in Boston. Part Three will describe how the program of secondary education in some other nations of the Western world differs significantly from that found in the United States. Is not good education the same any time and any place? Why does the program of schooling change over the years? Why does our system of education differ from those of other countries? In brief, what are the forces that have shaped the program of secondary education in this nation?

Education embraces two basic factors: pupils, and a social group. If education changes over a period of years or if it differs from country to country, the reason is that one or both of these elements in the situation change or are different, or the leaders who plan the program of education view these factors differently. These two basic constituents give substance and shape to the schools, and any change or variation in these social agencies is due to differences in these factors. The kind of educational program we have at any particular time and place in history is due to the nature of and interpretation given to these two forces.

Pupils Shape the School Program

Obviously, the program of the school must be postulated in terms of the kinds of youngsters who will attend. The very nature of the curriculum is dependent on the capacities and growth characteristics of the pupils enrolled. The school is fashioned on the basis of the learning

potentials of children and youth. To understand the significance of this factor, we need only reflect on the kind of "school" we would have, for example, for dogs, or seals, or horses. Thus our entire school program is geared in the first place to the learning potentialities of boys and girls and to the ways in which these capacities develop throughout the period of immaturity. If the child reached maturity at age ten, there might be little need for secondary schools.

Research shows that these capacities and potentialities, and the manner in which they develop do *not* differ significantly from country to country, and it is quite likely that they have not changed much if at all during the modern period of time. Very likely fourteen-year-old youngsters in France, England, Russia, Germany, and the United States do not differ significantly in their capabilities to learn simply because they are natives of a particular country. And probably a typical American pupil of fourteen today does not differ much from his counterpart of a century or two centuries ago in this characteristic. Differences in programs of education from country to country, then, cannot be explained on the basis of differences in the innate capabilities of the youth of the nations, or in the ways in which pupils learn. The laws of learning are the same for all peoples.

What does vary from country to country and in any one country from decade to decade and century to century, however, is our knowledge and understanding of children and youth, of their capacities and potentialities for learning, their growth and developmental characteristics, their drives and motives, and the processes by which they learn. Research is essential in gaining an understanding of such characteristics of our children and youth. We in the United States have been most active over the years in carrying out such studies and in increasing our knowledge of children and youth. Child study has been a major aspect of teacher education and of in-service education in this country for many years, so that teachers and school officials in this country are not only well informed about the growth processes of pupils; they are endeavoring to provide a program of education that properly takes account of the facts discovered by research. Chapter 2 discussed the concern of educators about youth and their desire to learn all they can about the pupils who enroll in our schools. In these respects, this country is far ahead of other nations of the world. Our professional education programs provide the teachers of this country with far deeper and more comprehensive insights into the basic characteristics of pupils than is possessed by teachers in other nations. The programs for the professional preparation of teachers in many nations of the world fail utterly to provide them with a thorough insight into the nature of learners and the psychological bases for learning.

This, then, is one major factor that has shaped the program of education in this country—the understanding and knowledge we as teachers have about the growth and development of children and youth. We have endeavored to formulate a program of education geared to the developmental needs of young people and based on the laws of learning. In America we have been much more willing to experiment, to modify our educational program in light of research findings. Education has changed because of psychological research and our American disposition to use research to better national life in all aspects.



Music Has Become an Important Part of the Curriculum of the Secondary School. Its popularity is due not only to the importance given to music in the cultural life of the people, but to the enjoyment adolescents receive from expressing themselves creatively through musical activities. (Courtesy of Lincoln Northeast High School, Lincoln, Nebraska.)

Another significant way in which pupils in general differ from country to country and from generation to generation is in their aspirations and life goals. These aspects of personality are in part at least culturally determined; hence such factors are really aspects of the cultural base of education and will be considered later in this chapter. Needless to say, the aspiration levels of pupils and of parents for their children have important bearings on the educational program and account in part for differences in educational systems.

The Culture Shapes the School

The school is a social agency; it is established by the social group to prepare the young for participation in the life of the group. A society seeks to perpetuate and improve its way of life, to ensure continuation of

its traditions, to attain its aspirations as a society, to achieve its ideals through the education of the young. The school is the primary instrumentality for educating the young. It is one of the principal means for passing on the essential aspects of the culture of the social group. But the school, particularly in a dynamic, changing society such as ours, is an agency through which the social group also hopes to improve the status of the people comprising the group, to make more perfect the quality of living of each individual so that he will more fully exemplify in his life the values and traits prized so highly by the people. In short, the program and methods of the school are but a reflection of the dreams of a people of what their destiny is and of what they believe to be the ideal state of man. The schools of Russia, about which we have heard so much in recent years, also illustrate this point vividly.

By the very nature of its origins and controls, the structure, organization, program, and methods of the school must inevitably conform to dominant concepts and beliefs of those who control the school; otherwise the group will repudiate the school as being "anti"-American, -British, -French, -Russian, or "anti"-whatever group has created the school as its vehicle for social self-perpetuation, and will reconstitute it on a new basis so that it does carry out effectively the will of the social group in control. It is unthinkable that a people would establish, support, and control a school that did not aid them in achieving their goals as a nation.

But this basic thesis still does not explain fully the actual relationship of the school to its social group. First, it leaves unanswered the question of how a people are to educate the young so that the ideals, values, and traditions of the people will be perpetuated, how the accumulated heritage of the group may best be transmitted to succeeding generations, or how the basic aspirations of the people are to be realized. What should be the nature of a program of education that will ensure the perpetuation of a society? Secondly, our basic concept of the social obligation of the school must take account of the fact that the school itself may bring about a change in the value patterns, ideals, traditions, and aspirations of a society. If we grant that this may occur, then who is to decide what changes in the culture should be fostered by the school? And what changes? Can the educator himself promote change even though the school is in control of the social group and it wants to see its ideals perpetuated? Or do some societies themselves encourage change in social beliefs as a part of their own set of beliefs and values, and hence want the school to take the lead in promoting such changes? Or does society, by the very nature of its complexity and the difficulties inherent in exercising complete social control over the school, permit the teacher, as its agent, a greater or lesser degree of discretion in inculcating social

values, so that the school is permitted to educate for change within tolerable limits? May a society, as one of its own basic cultural patterns, encourage the school to educate the young so that they will exemplify changed value patterns and develop new patterns of behavior? These are questions basic to our consideration of the social role of the school. The position a social group takes on these issues provides some of the reasons why educational systems and programs vary from culture to culture, both in point of development and in point of origin.

CULTURAL FACTORS IN EDUCATION

The American system of education at the present moment in history is the resultant of a highly complex set of forces that are indigenous to the American culture. Some of the most significant of these social forces that have shaped our American system of secondary education are these:

1. The basic values held dear by common consent by the American people
2. Our aspirations as a people, particularly those relating to opportunities to be made available to the young
3. The traditions of the American culture
4. The concepts held by the great majority of people on the role and function of the school in our society
5. The recognition accorded pupils in the educative process
6. The commonly accepted views on the kinds of educational experiences that are desirable for fulfilling the functions assigned the school by the social group

The teacher is employed by the appropriate representatives of the social group to formulate and carry out an education program that takes proper account of these social forces. The school must operate within the framework of values, traditions, aspirations, concepts and beliefs of the people. This places a terrific responsibility on teachers. If they are to provide "good" schools, acceptable to the citizens generally, they must collectively

ascertain what basic values, traditions, aspirations, concepts, and beliefs of the social group, or at least the great majority of those who are in a position to influence social action, want inculcated in the young; recognize areas of discretion in educating youth in which the society has no clearly established norms, and hence permits the school to carry on experimentation, try out new practices, or, on the other hand, do nothing at all to educate the young in such matters; and within such discretionary areas of educational planning determine what the social group immediately responsible for the operation and control of the school regards as desirable, so that they, the professional

staff of the school, may decide whether to conform to these local pressures or deliberately set about to educate the young in terms of a different set of values and behavior patterns.

We may more readily understand these basic responsibilities of the school in our democratic American society by reflecting on some actual practices. One of our basic values, generally accepted by citizens everywhere, is respect for property and the right of the individual to hold property. If a teacher in a school began to teach his pupils to steal and provided learning experiences in stealing, we can foresee what would happen—the teacher would be relieved of his position as soon as anyone in authority found out about it. Similarly, a teacher would be quickly dismissed if he taught his pupils that promiscuity in sex relations was an acceptable mode of behavior, or that war was a desirable national policy. These relate to basic values and beliefs on which the social group does not tolerate deviation, and therefore it insists that children be taught these basic virtues. If a school in any way fails to support such primary beliefs, almost inevitably the persons responsible for such deviation will be separated from it. Society will not permit a school to inculcate beliefs and values that vary from the basic norms of the group. These are the values that are rather clearly defined and have a long tradition, perhaps even throughout the recorded history of man.

But we American people have a whole group of generalized value patterns which the society rather universally accepts, but in which variations exist in interpretation or in application. For example, citizens generally believe in loyalty to our country, but what constitutes loyalty? Are teachers free to criticize acts of government, or to question the motives of our great national figures of history? Must they support the program of the party in control of Congress? What is a proper degree of loyalty? In one community known to us it was observed by the principal that a newly appointed teacher did not recite the pledge of allegiance to the flag at the first school assembly of the year. When asked about his failure to join in this patriotic ceremony, he simply said he did not believe in the pledge. The principal recommended that he resign his position immediately, which he did. Over the noon hour, word of the actions of the teacher spread rapidly through the town and a delegation of citizens called on the principal. When he assured them that the offending teacher had already resigned, they were satisfied. By nightfall, the teacher had left the community.

Our belief in religious freedom is also subject to wide variation in school practice. In some communities, the schools avoid doing anything that involves religious beliefs, not permitting the reading of the Bible in any version, while in others the Bible may be read without comment. In some schools a common prayer is recited, but efforts to introduce such

a practice in other communities have led to vigorous opposition by citizen groups. In some schools pupils are released from school to attend religious classes conducted by churches; in others this is not permitted. Many other examples of this kind could be given, but these are sufficient to illustrate the wide variation in the policies and practices of schools in carrying out a great many of our basic beliefs and values as a people.

Not to be overlooked are the beliefs and values concerning which the people themselves are by no means unanimous. An example is the origin of man. In most communities, a teacher is free to teach the theory of evolution, but in other communities the dominant social group of the community forces the teacher through direct orders of the board of education, or by threats of dismissal, not to consider the subject at all or to teach the theory of divine creation. The controversy arising from the decision of the United States Supreme Court on segregation of pupils on the basis of race is another example of wide divergences in beliefs from community to community, as well as of the fact that many communities will not permit teachers discretion in formulating school policies that relate to this area of social mores and traditions.

The role of the teacher in ascertaining the social beliefs of our people and the variations in beliefs and value patterns from community to community is a very difficult and arduous one, but it is one that must be accepted.

THE BELIEFS OF THE SOCIAL GROUP DETERMINE THE NATURE OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

It is quite clear now why the educational program varies so widely from nation to nation and from one period of history to another. The schools of a nation are charged with the responsibility of inculcating a particular set of social values at a particular time in history; moreover, they must conform in essential characteristics to views the people hold about education and its function and purpose in that society. The school is indeed an instrumentality for carrying out social policy. It inevitably is molded to conform to the basic concepts of the citizens on the proper way to educate the young for living adequately and effectively in that society. Education evolves as a part of the total cultural pattern of a people, and the system itself becomes institutionalized, to be defended and supported as a part of the culture. England has built one type of educational system, France another, and Russia yet another because the concepts about the function and purpose of education of each of these cultural groups differ. These peoples differ in their ideas on who should be educated and at what levels, on what constitutes a proper education for life in that country, on how the schools should be related

to other social institutions, on the role to be accorded children in the social group, on the attitudes to be taken toward the pupils as learners, on the recognition to be given to research as a basis for educational planning, and on a myriad of beliefs of this sort that relate to educational planning.

Within a system of cultural values, of course, variation may be permitted, and it may even be that one of the beliefs of the social group itself is to permit and encourage deviation. Thus, in this country we find differences among our school systems; yet, essentially, all operate within a framework of beliefs and value patterns that are universally accepted by the American citizen. One of the primary characteristics of a culture is its receptivity to new ideas, to change. In summarizing a study of basic changes in the culture of the people on Manus, Margaret Mead, the well-known anthropologist, observes:

Thus it can be seen that throughout human history there has been a struggle between the proponents of closed and open systems, systems that could change their forms, accommodate to new ideas, retain the allegiance of new generations within them rather than goad them into rebellion or desertion, systems that welcomed the ideas, the questions, and the members of other systems, and those contrasting systems which hardened into exclusiveness and conservatism, so that wars of conquest, the rack, the ritual trial, the war on unbelievers in which one attained merit by killing them, became their destructive methods of self-perpetuation.¹

In the United States, we as a people have generally fostered an open system. We have not only permitted but compelled through social pressure those in control of the schools to accommodate change, to develop new patterns that would more fully give expression to the ideals and aspirations of the people. Our system of education gives expression to the political, social, and economic concepts of the people; its form and program are indigenous to a cultural climate found only in America.

We were all pioneers, suffering the hardships and deprivations of frontier life together; no elite class existed to pass down privileges and control to its young. Community responsibilities and leadership were conferred by the group on those who possessed the desired talents; no class structure served to repress those of ability and talents. Government and social control arose out of the needs of the group for mutual protection, justice, and fair play for all, and the pursuit of common interests. It was inevitable, then, that the schools established by such a society would be open to all, that every child was to have the privilege

¹ Margaret Mead, *New Lives for Old* (New York: William Morrow & Company, 1956), p. 457. All rights reserved. Published simultaneously in the Dominion of Canada by George J. McLeod, Limited, Toronto. Printed in the United States of America.

of developing his own talents and potentialities to the fullest, and that the educational program would be planned to help him become the best citizen possible.

The teacher is a person whom society entrusts with important responsibilities for inculcating social values and beliefs in the young, and for assisting the social group in achieving its goals and fulfilling its aspirations. The responsibility of the teacher, then, is to know and understand fully the social values, behavior patterns, personality traits, and life goals the social group wants perpetuated, and the manner in which the school may best discharge this obligation to society.

Basic Values, Ideals, and Aspirations of the American People

The American people have never set down in a definitive form the articles of their democratic faith, so we cannot turn to a document for a statement of the ideals that embody the American tradition. Rather, we must winnow our concepts of democracy from an analysis of the ways in which people live and behave, the laws we adopt, the traditions and customs we revere, the way we vote, the causes we support, the things we say, the statements of those who are astute in analyzing the American culture, the institutions we establish and support, the approbation we give to the acts of other citizens, and many similar aspects of American life.

ARTICLES OF DEMOCRATIC FAITH

On the basis of such a study, we believe these to be the basic articles of our democratic faith:²

1. *Every human being is of surpassing worth, and the dignity of the individual must be respected at all times.* This article of faith is indeed the foundation stone of our American democratic traditions. The American people have always rejected efforts to make man the subject of the state or other institutions; rather, the state and all social agencies exist to serve man, to enable him to attain his true destiny. Nor is one man to be made to serve the selfish ends and purposes of another, or to be relegated to an inferior position because of any artificial social structures. As the worth of the individual is enhanced, the entire social group benefits; as he more fully attains his potentialities, the more his fellow citizens profit.

² The reader may also wish to refer to another approach to such a definition of democracy in J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, *Curriculum Planning* (New York: Rinehart & Company, 1954), pp. 122-127.

It is this ideal that undergirds much of our educational structure and program today. The provisions for universal education, the continuous, unitary system of schools, the enactment of compulsory attendance laws, the granting of a large measure of local autonomy in the operation of the schools so that local adaptability is fostered, the efforts to develop the whole child, the use of pupil-centered methods of teaching, and the diversity of the curriculum are all evidences of the school's efforts in America to respect the dignity of the individual, and to contribute to the fulfillment of his potentialities as a human being. The teacher, as a representative of society, must always organize and conduct the school in such a way that human values are fostered and the dignity and worth of each individual pupil are respected.

2. *Equality exists for all individuals.* This promise of democracy is a natural concomitant of the previous one, for if we respect the worth and dignity of the individual, we provide him with equality of opportunity to share in the benefits of democracy and our democratic institutions.

Again, we readily see that the American school system has endeavored to the best of its ability to give expression to this ideal. The school is open to all the children of all the people, except those that must have special care, provided in other ways by society. But we would be remiss if we did not recognize that great variation does exist throughout the country in the quality of the educational program available to individual pupils. Concerned citizens and educators strive constantly to provide better programs for those youth now denied the best education possible. But such variation in opportunities for acquiring a good education is not due to an aristocratic conception of education that favors secondary education only for a select few. One of the great tasks ahead, however, is to provide a system of schools that will ensure every child the best education possible.

3. *People have the ability and the right to govern themselves and to decide basic questions of social policy.* This is a fundamental premise of democracy and constitutes the only method of assuring freedom and equality for the individual and of respecting the dignity and worth of every person. This principle of democracy has been applied in practice from the smallest one-room rural school district to our national government.

If the people have decision-making power, it is essential that they be competent to make good, sound decisions—that they be *educated*. Free government cannot exist without an intelligent and informed citizenry. Our forefathers from the earliest days of the republic recognized this fact, and the establishment of schools universally open to all children became a necessity if the country was to remain free and

strong. So the fact that we as a nation are free and that government has functioned to enhance the dignity of man is in itself evidence that we as a people have evolved a great system of public schools.

4. *The individual has an inalienable right to liberty and freedom.* Democracy truly guarantees to every person freedom—freedom to live, to believe, to worship, to speak, to assemble peacefully, and to criticize the acts of the servants of the people. This guarantee also includes the sanctity of the home, and liberty—liberty to pursue one's own interests, giving due regard to the same right for other persons, to move freely, to differ, to cultivate one's own talents.

If the individual is to have such a large measure of freedom and liberty in a democracy, he needs to be well educated so that he may be properly self-directive, understanding not only his own rights and privileges but respecting those of others.

Americans have long regarded education as one of these rights and privileges. We have never permitted a system of schools based on social class to spring up, but have always insisted on the organization of free public schools that would be open to all children. And the program of our schools reflects our basic concern with the rights and privileges of the individual, for it not only teaches him about these basic democratic principles, but provides him opportunities to gain vital experiences, at his level of maturity, in the exercise of these privileges.

5. *Man can attain perfectibility.* A capstone to our faith in man is the belief that he is capable of attaining perfectibility. Man can improve; he can fulfill his destiny as a human being, primarily because he possesses intelligence and is self-directive. He can establish worthy goals for himself and then strive to achieve them through use of his unique resources embodied in the higher mental processes. He rightfully can aspire to what is noble, dignified, and self-fulfilling.

The establishment of a universal system of schools, open to all the children of all the people, is a proper implementation of this belief in the perfectibility of man. Such an act of the social group confirms its faith in the ability of man to determine his own destiny. Education becomes a necessity if man is to adapt his institutions to the end that they may continuously serve him better.

ASPECTS OF SOCIAL LIFE IN AMERICA

These basic values of our democratic society constitute the social context in which schools are established, organized, and operated in this country. But the peoples of other nations of the Western world also proclaim these same articles of democratic faith as the essence of their social values, yet the school systems differ. The differences arise in the

application of these beliefs in practice. Within the broad social values listed above, the American people have given expression in their daily lives to some important social principles that, as a total mosaic, are unique to the American culture. Some of the most important of these facets of American life are as follows:

1. *An experimental attitude.* The people of this country encourage experimentation, change, and the introduction of new modes of operation and practice. Reverence for tradition is minimal, as compared with other Western cultures; change wins approbation. And this attitude is apparent in the educational field. Citizens expect schools to experiment; to try out new ideas; to change their organization, structure, and program in order to serve more fully the needs of children and youth. In no other country of the world is this willingness to change social institutions, particularly schools, so evident.

2. *A quest for knowledge.* The American people have an insatiable desire to expand the fields of knowledge, to make new discoveries, to carry on research on things affecting their lives, to know, to understand, to search for truth. Coupled with our experimental frame of mind, these two social attitudes give rise to new concepts, new points of view, and hence to new practices in our educational structure. This is particularly true with respect to teaching methods, and the scope and sequence of the curriculum itself. Our research on human growth and development, on the psychology of learning, on the formulation of character, and on the impact of social agencies, including the school, the family, and the peer group, on the total development of the individual, has been the basis for much of the change that has taken place in American education in the past half century. By contrast, little genuine research of this sort is carried on in the other nations of the Western world, so it is little wonder that education in these countries changes slowly. Tradition, not research, determines policy all too frequently.

3. *A concern for children.* Probably among no other peoples of the world are children revered and respected as in America. It is not that other peoples do not love their children but love takes a social context, and in our country this consists of a basic concern for the welfare and well-being of the child that is unparalleled in other civilized nations. Admittedly, such a judgment is based on our own definition of what constitutes concern, respect, and love. We abhor cruelty to children; we protect children in every way possible from degradation, from the seamy side of life. We want them to be happy, to be satisfied, to be carefree, to enjoy the bountifulness of our material resources.

This social artifact, too, has its impact on our schools. The harsh discipline of an earlier day has largely disappeared from the classroom; children's interests, problems, and concerns are focal points for curric-

ulum planning, not only because of the implications for learning but because of our sheer respect for children. A function of the school is to provide every child ample opportunity to develop his own unique potentialities. Self-direction and self-discipline are the desiderata of school policy.

4. *An abiding faith in education.* Unquestionably the American people have great faith in education. Education means opportunity; it enables the child of lowliest birth to advance to a position of great responsibility or leadership; it increases the worker's productivity, the farmer's yields, the artisan's skill, the artist's creativity. It is considered essential for the preservation and perfection of democracy. Education leads to self-contentment, to self-development, to self-satisfaction, and to self-realization. It liberates the mind and spirit of man.

5. *The use of reason and creative intelligence to perfect his way of life.* The American places confidence in the methods of scientific inquiry and of logical thinking to solve his problems. He is a religious man, but he does not rely on divine miracles to achieve his mundane goals in life. He believes that the application of reason will bring about a sound and proper solution to his problems. He may even mistrust his own agents of government, and is readily willing to challenge authority on matters which he himself feels competent to decide. This is indeed an age of reason, and the American is one of its leading exponents, particularly in applying reason to the solution of day-to-day problems.

It is to be expected, then, that the people of this country maintain a system of schools that enables every person to make use of the methods of reason, to apply intelligence to the solution of his problems. Every man must be well educated if he is to decide matters for himself.

6. *Necessity for knowledge.* The American citizen believes that if a person knows, he is disposed to act wisely. Without knowledge, he cannot be expected to act for the best interest of himself or the social group. Hence we long ago made attendance at school compulsory, and this, of course, necessitates a system of schools universally available.

7. *Individual responsibility.* "Rugged individualism" long has characterized American economic and social beliefs. The individual has within his own power the ability to advance his own welfare and to attain his goals in life. Again, education must be universally available if he is to provide for his own development and self-realization.

8. *Freedom of the school from partisan control.* Even though schools are established and controlled by public agencies, usually boards of education created by the state, citizens have long insisted that they must never become vehicles for political aggrandizement or for propagation of political faith.

9. *Social mobility.* Another significant aspect of American life that has influenced the development of our schools is social mobility. The American people regard education as the primary avenue for advancing in the social scale.³ The millions of immigrants to our shores regarded schooling as the means by which their children could attain positions of leadership and responsibility and a higher status in life than they could ever hope to attain in their native country; the factory worker, the miner, the farmer, the construction worker—all believed that education would open doors of opportunity to their children that would never be opened in any other way. And they were right.

Our system of education has been molded by these social forces, social values, and modes of group life. Our schools differ from those of other countries of the world because we as a nation have different attitudes, different social structures, different concepts of group life, and a different system of values and behavior patterns.

Impact of Tradition and the Pressure to Conform on Education

Although we have stated that the American people are experimentally minded and favor change, and in comparison with other nations our schools do exhibit considerable change over a period of time, in the practical workaday world of the teacher, tradition, precedent, and previous practice are factors shaping the program of education actually provided pupils. Usually, we who are engaged in teaching become members of the staff of an established school. The school is functioning and someone has already formulated a program of studies, selected textbooks, purchased books for the library, determined school policies, and the like. To change this educational structure, initiative must be exercised, formal administrative actions must be taken, and policies and regulations must be changed. This is often not easy to do. Frequently a teacher who wants to experiment, to try out new practices, to undertake new ways of doing things faces restrictions of one sort or another that make it difficult to introduce change. It is much easier to conform, to follow traditional practice, to carry out established policies and regulations, to adhere to approved procedures—and the temptation to do so is great.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF THE SCHOOL

It is even much more difficult to change the structural pattern of education itself or to reorganize the basic program of the school. The

³ Wilbur B. Brookover, *A Sociology of Education* (New York: American Book Company, 1955), pp. 105-119.

system of education has itself become institutionalized, and change is not easy. Seldom do we as a group of professional workers, or does the social group itself, examine and evaluate the total structure and program of education to determine their appropriateness at this point in history in serving basic functions of the school or in attaining proper goals for the education of youth. If we become concerned about some weakness or deficiency in our schools, we patch and repair the existing structure, rather than weigh the question of whether a change is needed in the basic organization and program of education itself. Of course, the same situation prevails with regard to other social institutions, but the schools reflect so fully the social beliefs and aspirations of the people that change may become more necessary, yet actually more difficult, than for other agencies of group life. Since the schools constitute a primary vehicle for transmitting social values and group beliefs, the citizens collectively keep an eagle eye on the schools to see that they conform, that children are taught the proper things, and that the school fulfills the social demands of the people. Thus once a pattern of education is developed, and socially approved, change becomes difficult, for this means re-examining basic assumptions, calling in question established policy, and discarding accepted procedures and practices. People do not take kindly to such a challenge of the established order of things.⁴ Lawrence Frank is indeed bitter about the hold of tradition on the minds of men:

Man is at the mercy of these versions of his past, these selectively organized presentations of traditions and events from which he derives his cultural heritage, his image of himself, and his ideas of his future.⁵

TRADITION IS EXORABLE

Yet we have already pointed out in Chapter 4 that education in America has changed fundamentally, that we as a people have evolved a structure for education unlike any in the world, and vastly different from the pattern originally developed in this country. The curriculum itself changes—and in terms of the history of American culture, rather rapidly, as is shown by contrasting programs given in Chapters 4 and 9. How can we reconcile these apparent contradictions in cultural life?

Frank himself provides much of the answer in prescribing therapeutic remedies for a society:

⁴ David Riesman writes brilliantly about this social pressure to conform in two challenging books: *The Lonely Crowd* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1950) and *Constraint and Variety in American Education* (Lincoln: The University of Nebraska Press, 1956).

⁵ Lawrence K. Frank, *Society as the Patient* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1948), p. 304. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

If one will reflect on the notion of progress and study the implications of social change, it will be realized that a group can change and be progressive only by emancipating itself—that is, its members—from its past, by interrupting the continuity of the cultural traditions so that new patterns of action, speech, and belief may be created to supersede and replace the old. Therein lies the essential difference between a static, tradition-bound society wherein the traditions of the past largely control life and the progressive societies which permit and, to an increasing extent, encourage criticism of tradition. Even when it has undermined the most venerable beliefs, man has learned to foster the creation of new ideas and practices.⁶

Riesman, in describing the autonomous person, also gives us some valuable clues to the nature of change in a dynamic society and the role of the individual in supporting change.⁷ Van Cleve Morris contributes a thoughtful interpretation of man's responsibilities for change in a modern urbanized society.⁸

And so it seems in America—particularly in the field of education—that we as a people have encouraged experimentation, the trying out of new practices and procedures, the introduction of new types of learning experiences, but only within broad limits of social values consistent with the American concept. In other words, any experimentation or change is restricted to what the people themselves believe to be the American way of life, the American dream, the American concept of democratic living. As we analyze developments in American education, we see that the people allow those responsible for establishing, organizing, and instructing the schools a considerable measure of freedom, an area of discretion, within which they are relatively free to devise better ways of providing an education for children and youth. But such modifications, experimentations, and idiosyncratic practices must stay within limits, within the area of discretion permitted by the social group immediately in control of the school. With such a large measure of local control in American education, this in effect means that the citizens of the local community determine the range of tolerance—the extent to which they will permit modifications of the traditional program of education—unless the state, the creator of the local school district, orders the local school to make changes that it has determined are proper. The people of the state *in toto*, too, have a range of tolerance within which the program of education must be developed by the local community.

Throughout their history, the people of America, although with some recognizable reluctance on occasion, not only have permitted, but

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ David Riesman, *Individualism Reconsidered* (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954).

⁸ Van Cleve Morris, "The Other-Directed Man," *Teachers College Record*, 57:232-240 (January, 1956).

have encouraged breaks with tradition and, in Frank's words, have emancipated themselves from the strangle hold of tradition. If we blindly and uncritically adhere to the same organization of the educational program, establish new schools of the same sort as those we have had, teach pupils the same things we have taught others previously, and offer the same program of studies we had last year, we permit ourselves to be the slaves of tradition, but if we continuously evaluate present practice to determine its effectiveness in serving the ends sought, experiment with new structures and new ways of doing things that offer promise of better serving our goals, examine critically our hypotheses, and subject our goals and methods of attaining them to intelligent criticism, we escape the tentacles of tradition and conformity. We slough off the deadening effects of tradition only as we deliberately work at ridding ourselves of them.

Changes in American Life Affect the School Program

In the total syndrome of forces that shape American schools are some developments in our national life that should be mentioned, even if only briefly.

INDUSTRIALIZATION AND URBANIZATION

The phenomenal industrialization of America has produced profound changes in American life and institutions. People have congregated in cities; the proportion living in rural areas has declined rapidly. With this rapid trend to urbanization the whole social life of the people has become much more complex. New skills of social living have become essential, and new responsibilities are placed on the citizen. Family life has changed markedly. Economic interdependence has become a fact of life. Technical knowledge is a necessity not only for the farmer, the worker, and the businessman, but for the professional man, the plain ordinary citizen, and the housewife. Job opportunities have changed, and the types of skills needed in gaining a living are different. The resultants of a great technology have affected every aspect of living and have brought about fundamental changes in modes of living and of making a living. These in turn have affected the educational program of the country.

The people naturally turned to the school to help them cope with these new problems of living. The educator, sensing the stresses created by these forces of technology and recognizing the gaps in the total education of the young that resulted from these significant changes, under-

took to fulfill these needs for a new and broader type of education. And as he ventured into new types of educational programs and activities the public approved. So education for "vocation," "citizenship," "worthy home-membership," "worthy use of leisure," and "ethical character," as enunciated in the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education, was accepted as an appropriate function of the school. Thus, the program of the secondary school in America today has been shaped by the fundamental changes in American life brought about by the technological revolution that has swept this country in the past century. And continued technological changes, particularly those resulting from the fission and fusion of the atom and from the development of automatic processes of manufacturing, will undoubtedly call for further changes in the program of education in this country. Venturesome teachers and administrators, utilizing the discretion permitted them by an experimentally minded society, will continue to try out new programs, practices, procedures, and organizations in adapting the schools to even newer social conditions.

TECHNOLOGICAL BREAK-OUT

Certainly among the most notable changes in modern life are the advances that have been made in technology and in scientific discovery. All aspects of modern life have been modified in one respect or another by the application of scientific knowledge. Throughout their history the American people have been inventive and have always utilized scientific knowledge to ameliorate living conditions. Standards of living have been raised materially; diseases have been controlled more fully, and many of them have been conquered; the forces of nature have been more adequately controlled and harnessed for man's benefit; the comforts of life have been extended to all people and have been expanded in number; leisure time has been increased.

Even though phenomenal advances had already been made, discoveries and new applications of existing knowledge during the past decade or two have been almost unbelievable. Accomplishments include the splitting and the recombining of the atom and the harnessing of the fantastic amounts of energy released in the process. These discoveries rather completely change the status of whole nations, for those which have been short of sources of energy may now have energy in abundance. The use of jet engines and rockets has enabled man to launch satellites and has made "space ships" feasible. But these advances in technology have also brought about intercontinental missiles and a whole arsenal of weapons with a destructive power and range capable of destroying whole nations. New discoveries in the areas of nutrition, physiological regenera-

tion, and mental health also hold great import for man. These are but a few of the recent advances that give clues to what the future holds.⁹

The impact of such technological advances on education has already been great and will continue to be so. It taxes the ingenuity of even the most brilliant scholars to keep abreast of new knowledge; what can the school do to introduce young adolescents to it? Yet, unless we do, succeeding generations will be ill-prepared to rule the country, much less to decide policies on international affairs. Many other implications may be made.

COMMUNICATION

New methods of communication and changes in the use of communicative techniques have greatly affected American life. The dissemination of ideas, opinions, views, and news to every nook and cranny of the country is, of course, commonplace today. Travel to any part of the world is fast and readily feasible. Tens of millions of people may view the same event, enjoy the same presentation, or hear the same speech or discussion over television or radio. Through various media of communication practically all the people may be easily apprised of any events that occur throughout the world, and their opinions and reactions may be swayed by the presentation of dramatic and appealing scenes caught by television cameras. The molding of mass public opinion has become a disquieting possibility. Those of us who recall even faintly the use Hitler made of the radio and other media of mass persuasion shudder at the thought of what an equally skillful demagogue could do in using television to sway people.

These changes in communication have opened new horizons for education and also have imposed new burdens on the curriculum.

STANDARDS OF LIVING

The standard of living of the American people has increased prodigiously. Older people recognize from their own experience the gains that have been made—gains not only in material goods and services, but also in the cultural aspects of life. The increase in the listening to music of high quality, for example, is almost unbelievable. Increases in the sale of magazines and books, in proportion to population, are significant. The improvement in the taste of the people in beauty—home decor-

⁹ For some significant forecasts of what may lie ahead, see Harrison S. Brown, James Bonner, and John Weir, *The Next Hundred Years* (New York: The Viking Press, 1957); Peter F. B. Drucker, *America's Next Twenty Years* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957); and Richard L. Meier, *Science and Economic Development—New Patterns of Living* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956).

tion, clothing, design of products, landscaping, and the like—is further evidence of this rise in cultural standards.

This enhancement of standards of living and the rise in per capita income—a corollary condition—have their effect on the schools. Families are able to permit their children to remain in school longer, often to complete high school and enroll in college. The curriculum of the school reflects this increase in the cultural standards of the people. Enjoyment of the arts no longer remains the privilege of a few. Music is universally taught in the schools.

LEISURE

The work schedule of most Americans has been reduced considerably from what it was several decades ago; correspondingly, leisure time has increased greatly. Technology has enabled us to enjoy ever higher standards of living, yet spend much less time producing, processing, and distributing goods, and providing services.

This new-found leisure has also had an effect on the schools. The increase in the numbers of adults continuing formal education of one type or another is astounding. Also, the schools have accepted a responsibility to assist young people in making wise and satisfying use of their leisure hours. "Worthy use of leisure" was accepted as one of the seven cardinal objectives of education as early as 1918. But schools are still endeavoring to find a satisfactory base for developing such a behavior pattern in learners.

THE POPULATION "EXPLOSION"

The annual huge increase in population, which has been a characteristic of this country since 1947, inevitably has had and will continue to have a significant effect on schools. The nature of this increase was briefly discussed in Chapter 2. Here it should be considered as one of the aspects of American life that will influence the development and program of our schools. The problems inherent in furnishing a complete schooling for the greatly increased numbers of children and youth now enrolling in our schools are well known. Not only are there difficulties in providing enough physical facilities and competent teachers to carry on a school program; questions arise as to the kinds of educational programs that should be provided all of the children. Are traditional offerings and practices still acceptable? What kinds of employment will all of these young people obtain when they enter the labor market? Will leisure increase? Will entrance into the labor market be delayed? Will retirement occur earlier? The answers to such questions hold great import for the schools.

INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF THE WORLD

Another major development in modern life in America has been the change in our relationships with the rest of the world. New modes of travel and communication bind all nations much closer together than ever before. Interdependence of peoples everywhere has increased greatly. Our role in world affairs has shifted almost completely from what it was a few decades ago. The effect of these changes on the program of the school has been negligible to date, but it is certain that they will need to be taken into account in the future.

Organized Groups Influence the School

One of the most striking aspects of present-day American life is the prevalence of organized groups of all sorts. Any adult is usually a member of a number of organizations—the PTA of the neighborhood school, a church, the Men's Club or Circle of his church, a civic club, a character-building agency, a fraternal group, a political party, a labor union or professional organization or business association, a social club, a welfare group, a charitable organization, and so on for the whole gamut of group living. Such groups are always organized for a purpose, frequently to carry out some program that affects the society in one way or another. And, of course, such social-action groups inevitably support a particular set of beliefs and values and engage in activities that will promote the acceptance or advancement of their particular aims and objectives.

As for organized groups connected with the schools, they may be classified as lay—those composed of citizens who are not themselves engaged in teaching or administering the schools; and professional—those composed of the educators themselves. Both kinds exert considerable influence over the program of the school. Some of the lay groups deliberately undertake to bring about modifications of the school program or to ensure retention of some feature that they strongly approve. Matters relating to the teaching of patriotism and religion have been particularly subject to support or attack from organized interest groups of various sorts. But the whole gamut of the school's activities is likely to come under the surveillance of some organization.

PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

Professional groups exist primarily for the purpose of shaping the educational program of the country, and their influence is tremendous. We have already discussed in Chapter 4, for example, the impact of the National Education Association, through the reports of its famous com-

mittees, on the development of secondary education in this country during the closing years of the nineteenth century and the first part of this century. The influence of the NEA continues to this day, although many additional organizations now deal with particular aspects of education. Teachers often look to their own particular special-interest group for leadership and guidance in educational matters. These organizations usually enroll specialists as well as teachers working in a particular area of the high school program, so they are in a position to wield considerable influence over the offerings as well as the teaching methods and procedures used in classrooms throughout the country.

The National Council of Teachers of English may well serve to illustrate the work of these specialized professional organizations. The group organized in 1911, principally because of the efforts of some teachers of English to bring about a modification in college entrance requirements in the field of English.¹⁰ Within a month of its founding the Council began the publication of its official magazine, *The English Journal*, which has been published regularly since. One of the first official acts of the organization was to establish a Committee of Thirty that served as the English study committee for the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in its formulation of a program that would carry out the famous Seven Cardinal Principles of Education (see Chapter 4). The report of this committee, published in 1917 by the United States Office of Education, influenced the development of the English program in the secondary school for years to come. Since that time, the Council has created many committees that have prepared reports and publications of various sorts, all designed to improve the teaching of English and the English program in both the common schools and the colleges.

In 1930 the Council appointed its second major committee on curriculum and the three reports of this group were significant treatises on the teaching of English in the secondary school and college. Then in 1945, the group established its famous Commission on the English Curriculum, which prepared a three-volume series on the English program.

All three of these sets of curriculum reports in turn have been widely read and studied in college classes on the teaching of English, and have also been used by committees of teachers in individual school systems as guides for the formulation of an English program for their respective schools. Moreover, writers who prepare textbooks and other teaching materials for use in the schools have relied extensively on these reports

¹⁰ "The National Council, 1911-1936," *English Journal*, 25:805-836 (December, 1936).

for guidance in planning their publications, so that materials which teachers select for class use have also conformed to the recommendations of these committees, as each has succeeded the other in giving guidance to the development of the English program.

In addition to the work over the years of its many committees, the Council publishes four magazines—*Elementary English*, *English Journal*, *College Composition and Communication*, and *College English*. They contain articles on the teaching of English and other subjects of interest to teachers, and these also influence the program in the school. The annual conventions of the Council are attended by large numbers of college faculty members and teachers, and these serve, too, to give direction to changes in the English program.¹¹

Similar professional organizations exist for practically every specialized aspect of education, as was shown in Chapter 1. Our professional organizations are powerful factors in shaping the development of education in this country and we must clearly recognize their influence.

LAY GROUPS

Many organizations of lay citizens are also vitally interested in education, and from time to time endeavor to exercise influence over the schools. Examples of such groups are the following:

School advisory councils, such as citizens committees, lay advisory councils, school survey groups, and the like

Parent-teacher associations

Business and industrial groups, such as chambers of commerce, associations of manufacturers, trade associations

Labor groups

Patriotic groups, such as the American Legion, the Daughters of the American Revolution, Sons of the American Revolution, and the like

Civic groups

Religious organizations

Special-interest groups, such as societies and associations interested in exceptional children, the gifted, the school band, the creative arts, physical fitness, or in most any areas of the educational program

Self-interest groups, such as those formed to promote a cause or to exercise control over public agencies, including the schools: taxpayer associations, censorship groups, and the like

Many organizations of these types have made real contributions to the advancement of education in this country. Others are inimical to the

¹¹ J. N. Hook, "The National Council Looks Ahead," *English Journal*, 44:1-9 (January, 1955).

best interests of the schools, either by trying to shape the program to serve their own selfish ends or by opposing changes in the schools that authorities believe to be sound. The record usually is not wholly good or wholly bad for most of these groups. Often many of them favor some proposals that promise much for education, yet oppose other plans that are favored by authorities.

The gravest danger lies in those groups that wish to control education for selfish ends not consistent with basic democratic concepts and with the approved functions and purposes of the schools.

The proposals of every group that attempts to influence the schools should be subjected to the closest scrutiny and evaluated in the light of acceptable policies and objectives. Those not consistent with these principles should be rejected and if the group persists and steps up the pressure, educators should carry their case to the public, pointing out the dangers, in terms of sound educational practice, to the schools in such proposals.

Impact of New Philosophical and Psychological Conceptions

A basic factor in shaping American education during the twentieth century has been a new conception of the nature of man, with its corollary implications for educating him to live in a democratic society. This new school of philosophy, known as experimentalism, is based on a pragmatic philosophy of knowledge and a psychology of motivation and perception. This system of philosophy is sometimes called "naturalism." John Dewey has been the leading exponent of this school of thought. His influence on American education has undoubtedly been greater than that of any other individual in the whole history of this country. Popularly, the educational embodiment of his concepts has been known as "progressive education," although that term has been applied to so many different kinds of educational practice that it is presently meaningless in describing a scheme of education.

EXPERIMENTALISM

We will not be able here to delve deeply into this theory of education but a brief analysis of its impact on practice will be made.¹² Experimentalism holds that education is an interactive process between an individual who is the learner and his social environment. What the

¹² For an excellent brief exposition of various philosophic ideas about education, see R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, *A History of Education in American Culture* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953), pp. 339-347 and 492-499; for a fuller treatment of experimentalism, refer to John L. Childs, *American Pragmatism and Education* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1956).

individual learns is dependent on the inherent, internal motives of the learner and on the kinds and qualities of experiences he has. The function of education is to develop the individual so that he will be a self-directive person, utilizing the methods of creative intelligence to guide his behavior, and so that his own capabilities are realized. The perfection of society comes through the education of individuals in fulfillment of their potentialities so that they may be maximally effective in living personally satisfying lives and in contributing to the achievement of desirable social ends. Experimentalism holds that creative intelligence is the method of individual self-realization and social advancement. Learners must have ample opportunity to acquire the methods of rational thinking and to develop the ability to use intelligence in the solution of problems. Experience is an essential ingredient in learning; the pupil must be a participant in activities that are meaningful and significant to him if he is to refine the methods of intelligent action. Values are derived from racial experience, from a testing out of hypotheses in a social context.

This theory of education contrasts sharply with the concepts of idealism and humanism, both of which had dominated educational thought up to the twentieth century. These theories emphasized the acquisition of the great truths to be derived from a study of the writings and works of the great men of all times. The essence of a true education, according to these philosophers, is to be found in the study of classical literature, languages, philosophy, mathematics, history, and, to some extent, science. Once the learner has mastered the fundamental principles and methods of logical thinking that inhere in these disciplines, he is best equipped to take his place as citizen and to exercise a role of leadership in society. Values reside in the eternal verities that are to be discovered through such study. The mind is to be disciplined through rigorous mental processes required to comprehend the subject matter of these fields of knowledge, and once it has been properly trained, the individual is competent to face the multifarious problems he may find in the future as an individual and as a member of society.

ORGANISMIC PSYCHOLOGY

During this same period—the first half of the twentieth century—a new psychology was also being forged. Connectionism and behaviorism were being replaced by field theories and by social psychology. Instead of analyzing the mechanical methods by which the individual learns, emphasis was given to motivation, the impact of the social situation on the learner, and the effects of ego involvement. Supporting the experience concepts of the experimentalists, psychologists showed that learning

results from meaningful experiences of the learner and that motives of the individual coupled with his perception of the situation determined the behavior of the individual and hence the residue of experience that would be reconstructed into behavior. Researchers in the fields of psychoanalysis, mental health, social psychology, and cultural anthropology have contributed significantly to the evolution of present theories of learning and human growth and development. The effect of motivation—drives, needs, interests, aspiration levels—on learning and on behavior in general constitutes a substantial element in present-day theories about learning and human development. Also, the new psychology showed the organic totality of the human organism. The mind is not something apart from the body. The individual behaves as a harmonious whole. His motives and his reactions are the product of both mental and physiological processes. The whole child comes to school, and his mental development cannot be carried on independently of his physical, social, and emotional development. If the youngster is to become a good citizen and realize fully his potentialities, the school must be concerned with the total human personality. The new findings of psychiatry in particular showed the necessity of taking account of emotional and social development to make sure that the individual would be a self-directive, self-disciplined individual who could fulfill his role as a social being, able to live successfully with himself, with the members of his family, and with mankind in general. It is these considerations that have given rise to efforts of the school to educate the "whole child."

It is out of these two major developments in American life—a new philosophic conception of man and a new psychology of human behavior—that modern educational theory has evolved. Coupling these theories with the realities of modern life, the educator, with the support of the people, has developed an educational program indigenous to the American culture. But these efforts have also given rise to some sharp conflicts in education. Some teachers as well as leaders in educational thought have been unwilling to accept for education some of the implications of new findings in psychology and human growth and development. And opposing schools of philosophy vie for acceptance in the educational field as well as in other aspects of life. Much of the present conflict over educational purposes is basically a conflict between the adherents of experimentalism and of humanism over the functions of the school.

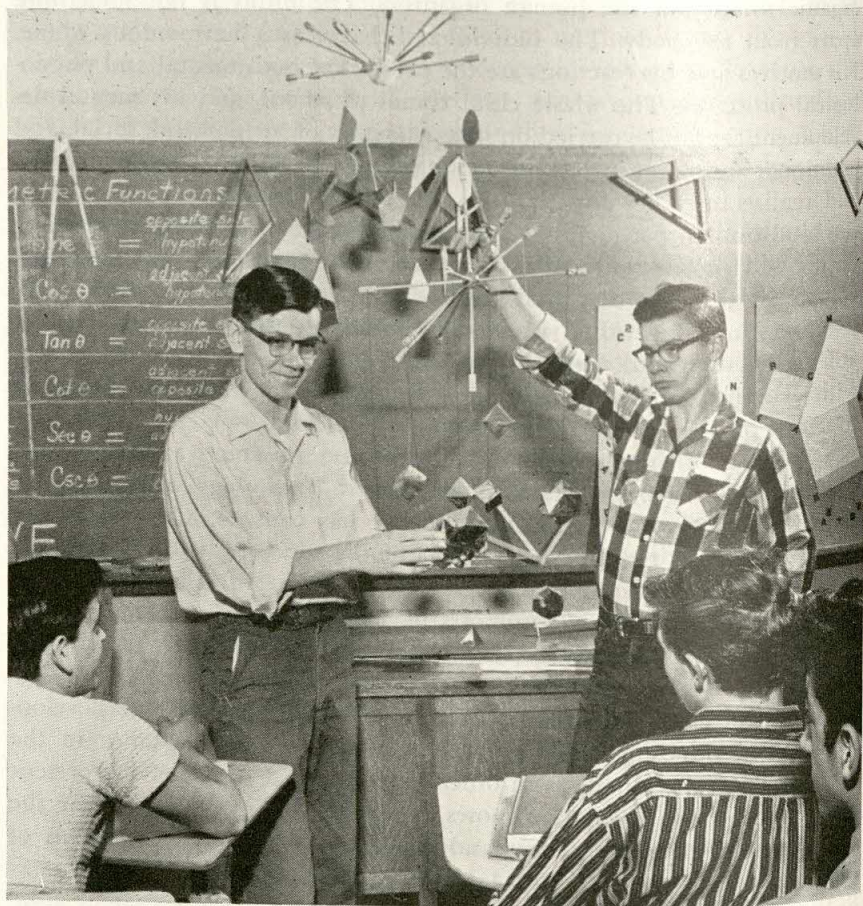
Influence of Other Agencies on the Schools

As has been emphasized in this chapter, the schools are subject to many influences and pressures, implicit or explicit, direct or indirect.

Here some additional agencies that affect planning in the secondary school will be discussed briefly.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS OF COLLEGES

One of the most significant controls over the high school curriculum is exercised by colleges and universities through their procedures of admitting high school graduates. As was noted in Chapter 4, a single unitary system of public education did not fully evolve until the last



The Nature of the Mathematics Program in High School Has Been Influenced by the Colleges. Mathematics is required for admission to many colleges and universities; moreover, the content of the courses is correlated with advanced subjects in the field. (Courtesy of Mechanic Arts High School, St. Paul, Minn.)

quarter of the nineteenth century. Prior to that time, colleges in general accepted students who showed competency in certain prescribed subjects, at first demonstrated by an oral examination, but later by a written examination.¹³ Students could acquire such competency by attending the academy or the new public high school, by individual study, or by study with a tutor. The college was not concerned about "graduation" as such from a secondary school. Actually, many of the institutions calling themselves colleges were offering work that was comparable to the offerings of academies or high schools. Henderson showed that in 1870 all of the 23 then existing state universities except 1 and all but 2 of the 184 private colleges on which he obtained data had preparatory departments. In fact, more than one half of all the students in such institutions were enrolled in that course.¹⁴

For such students admission to the college departments was simply a matter of promotion; for those coming from independent academies or public high schools, the examination method was used. But as a state system of public education began to take form after the Civil War, state universities increasingly recognized the necessity of forming a close association with the high schools, on which they would have to depend for many of their students.

College admission by certificate and examination. The University of Michigan made the first proposal for articulation by announcing in 1871 that the graduates of four high schools of that state would be admitted to the university on the basis of certificates stating that "they have studied all that is required for admission and are qualified to enter."¹⁵ This is the origin of the accreditation system and admission to college by certificate. Other state universities soon adopted this same policy. This action hastened the development of a unified system of public education from the first grade through the graduate college, but it gave the colleges and universities almost a strangle hold over the secondary school, for the colleges still retained the authority to determine what constituted adequate preparation for admission. Thus, college admission requirements became a dominant factor in shaping the curriculum of the high school. Whether such control is good or bad, depends on one's point of view on the purposes of education, the nature of the admission requirements, and the methods by which they are determined.

Many colleges, particularly the prestigious private institutions in the East, such as Harvard, Columbia, Yale, Princeton, and others, never

¹³ Claude M. Fuess, *The College Board: Its First Fifty Years* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1950), pp. 3-7.

¹⁴ Joseph L. Henderson, *Admission to College by Certificate* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1912), Chap. 2.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 51.

accepted fully the certificate method. To this day they base admission on examinations, high school record of the applicant, character ratings, and the like. These institutions joined together to establish the College Entrance Examination Board in 1900, which administers examinations used as a basis for college admission.¹⁶ The use of College Board examinations for admission purposes has increased greatly in recent years. Predating the establishment of the College Board, the state of New York had been using a state system of examination since 1878 for determining eligibility to graduate from high school in that state.¹⁷ Known as the Regents' Examinations, these tests, prepared under the direction of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, have for many years constituted the basis for obtaining a Regents' diploma upon graduation from high school. Such diplomas were often accepted by colleges, particularly in that state, as a basis for college admission.

Educators everywhere fully recognize the tremendous influence of the examinations of both the College Entrance Board and the New York Regents on the high school curriculum. High schools that are interested in aiding their pupils to prepare for either examination, of course, offer the subjects covered in these tests, and the content of the courses is based rather extensively on what is known to be covered in the examinations. Moreover, teaching methods used in such courses are designed to ensure mastery of the subject matter so that pupils will make good scores on the tests. Although these in themselves may be laudable aims of education, many secondary school educators vehemently criticize the entire procedure, for they know that such examinations greatly emphasize one—however important—objective of education to the neglect of other aims of education now generally accepted by educators and citizens alike as essential in a program of secondary education for all youth.

An inescapable condition of a unified system of education is the integration and coordination of the learning experiences of the learners as they progress through the educational system. The question becomes one of determining the basis for unification of programs, not its desirability. The problems of articulation of high school and college are these: What are the basic and primary functions of each institution? What are proper and valid criteria for defining the kinds of educational experiences to be provided at each level of schooling? What should constitute the threads of continuity, e.g., mastery of subject matter, personal development, emotional and social maturity, intellectual development, academic achievement, or similar objectives, and hence be the basis for promotion from one level to another? What constitute valid

¹⁶ Fuess, *op. cit.*

¹⁷ Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938), Chap. 10.

standards for advancement on the educational ladder? On what basis should institutions of higher learning accept students from the high school?

The Eight-Year Study. In recent years several experimental projects have been undertaken in an effort to find a more acceptable basis for admission to college. In 1933 The Progressive Education Association launched the famous Eight-Year Study, which was designed to find a better basis for admitting high school graduates to college and which would at the same time free the high schools from the necessity of teaching all college-bound pupils a prescribed set of subjects for college entrance. About thirty secondary schools participated in the project.¹⁸ Almost every college and university which graduates of these selected high schools wished to attend agreed to release them from the usual subject and unit requirements during a five-year experimental period, beginning in 1936. Admission was to be based primarily on the record of the pupil while in high school, including evidences of the requisite intelligence, seriousness of purpose, ability to do college work, and general scholastic achievement. The student also had to have the recommendation of the high school principal, who agreed to supply the college with a large amount of pertinent information about him, including a record of the pupil's school life and results of a large variety of tests given as a part of the experiment.

During the eight years of the study (1933-1941) the thirty schools were encouraged to develop the kind of curriculum that school authorities felt would best achieve the basic objectives of secondary education, without necessarily requiring college-bound pupils to pursue subjects usually prescribed for admission. The achievements of graduates of these thirty schools who attended college were compared on a comprehensive basis with a control group from other high schools not included in the experiment. The results were very favorable to the graduates of the experimental schools.¹⁹ Many educators have felt that the Eight-Year Study showed that success in college is not dependent on the passage of a prescribed pattern of courses in high school. Therefore, they advocated that the high schools be freed from the necessity of requiring their college-bound pupils to take these subjects solely for purposes of college admission. Thus, the high schools would be free to plan a program for each individual pupil that promised to contribute most to his education in terms of the accepted purposes of the school.

As a result in part of the criticisms directed at secondary education

¹⁸ Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942).

¹⁹ Dean Chamberlin and others, *Did They Succeed in College?* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942).

in recent years, as discussed in Chapter 3, the clamor to free the secondary schools of the indirect control of their programs by the colleges has died down, but the problem of building a unified program of educational experiences for boys and girls has increased. The issues involved are discussed more fully in Chapter 10.

ACCREDITATION

Closely related to college admission in shaping the program of secondary education is the practice of accreditation. In fact, accreditation of secondary schools is a corollary of the practice of admitting students to college by certificate. The University of Michigan, as stated previously, was the first institution to accredit high schools. As admission by certificate became generally accepted, accreditation also grew, since only certificates from schools that met prescribed standards were acceptable. In due time, some of the state departments of education also began to accredit schools, which became subject to two sets of standards and two inspections. This gave rise to the question of which agency should accredit schools—the universities themselves or the state departments of education. The issue was resolved in favor of the state departments, and today the state university has the sole responsibility for accrediting high schools in only two states—California and Michigan.²⁰ At the present time, then, accreditation is simply one means by which the state exercises the authority it already possesses to govern the schools. But the practice of accreditation is one of the most powerful means used by the state, and by the universities in instances in which they have sole or concurrent powers, to affect the nature of the program of secondary education. Such control may be very rigid and pervasive, or it may encourage local variation and local determination; yet it is nevertheless control.

Accreditation is further exercised by voluntary regional organizations of colleges and secondary schools:

- Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1892)
- North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1895)
- Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges (1895)
- Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools (1918)

In addition, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, organized in 1885, exercises considerable influence over the high schools of that region, although it does not accredit schools as such.

These associations formulate standards for accrediting high schools, and those which adequately meet the standards are admitted to membership. Membership carries considerable prestige, and pupils graduating or

²⁰ Grace S. Wright, *State Accreditation of High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1955, No. 5; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955), p. 4.

transferring from member schools often are accorded recognition by colleges in other states that they would otherwise not receive. Even though the influence of these associations has declined as the state departments of education have assumed much more important roles in accreditation within the state, nevertheless the regional associations have had significant influence over secondary education in this country. The standards set by these associations still constitute the basis for many administrative practices and policies.

In earlier years, accreditation was based largely on quantitative standards. Extensive use was made of the so-called Carnegie unit as a method of measuring the amount of time devoted to a subject in the secondary school. We noted in Chapter 4 that the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, in its report of 1899, proposed units of work as a basis for admission to college. This term began to be widely used by colleges and in 1909 it was formalized by the action of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The foundation defined a college as an institution that required, among other things, fourteen units of high school work as a basis for admission. This was done so that, for purposes of making grants, the foundation could determine what institutions or parts of institutions were true colleges. It defined a unit as constituting the study of a subject in high school for one period a day throughout the school year of thirty-six to forty weeks.²¹

College admission practices and standards formulated by accrediting agencies firmly implanted the Carnegie unit in American education, for it became almost the sole method of recording pupil progress through school and of determining graduation. Whether American secondary education will ever throw off the stultifying effects of such mechanical measures of accomplishment and find a more satisfactory basis for recording growth and achievement remains to be seen. So far, little of promise is on the horizon.

Research, Experimentation, and Evaluation

Among the many factors that have affected the development of secondary education in this country, research and experimentation in the field of education deserve recognition. The findings of many research studies, school surveys, and evaluative studies have had a marked influence on educational practice in this country. They form the basis for much of our theory, and practice is constantly being modified because of such studies.

Professional groups frequently carry on studies of this sort, such

²¹ Ellsworth Tompkins and Walter H. Gaumnitz, *The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1954, No. 7; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954).

as the Eight-Year Study described above, and college instructors conduct or direct a great deal of the research done in education; hence results often are readily translated into practice or into theory to govern practice. Many school systems and individual teachers also carry out research projects and experiments of various kinds, and many schools frequently make evaluative studies of one sort or another. In fact, emphasis in recent years has been placed on action research, that is, research carried on in actual field situations by people directly involved in the educational process itself.

A great deal of the research and experimentation in American education is subsidized by large philanthropic foundations, although they themselves usually do not formulate the design of the study or direct the carrying out of the project. Most of the grants are made to colleges and universities, school systems, or professional commissions or agencies for carrying out projects which the administrators of a fund believe will contribute to our insight and understanding or will suggest better ways of providing education for boys and girls. Some of these grants have been substantial, so that it has been possible to conduct investigations or experiments of a broad and comprehensive nature. The results are usually published in order that educators throughout the country may make use of them in planning educational developments. The Eight-Year Study directed by The Progressive Education Association, which was described in a previous section, is an example of an experiment that was extensively subsidized by two foundations. Foundations that have been most active in subsidizing educational projects include the following:

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching
The General Education Board of the Rockefeller Foundation
The Julius Rosenwald Foundation
The Fund for the Advancement of Education
(a subsidiary of the Ford Foundation)
The W. K. Kellogg Foundation

Many smaller foundations of a regional or local nature have also made grants to individual institutions or local agencies.

Since 1956 the federal government has appropriated funds for the subsidization of educational research. The funds are administered by the United States Office of Education, but the money is allocated to institutions or agencies to assist them in carrying on studies approved by the Office of Education.

Although the foundations and the Office of Education usually do not attempt to influence the outcomes of a study which they subsidize (it is not a research or an experiment if they do), they do exercise great influ-

ence over educational research and experimentation through the decisions they make on the kinds of projects that will be approved for study. By the very act of selecting from among many proposals submitted for approval, these agencies determine in a large measure the nature of the major research and experimental projects in education to be undertaken in this country. Many important problems remain uninvestigated by research methods because financial support is not available and many a promising idea or plan remains untested because no foundation or federal agency chose to subsidize it.

The kinds of evaluation that are made of the educational program have a tremendous influence on curriculum planning and on the work of the school. This is as it should be, for evaluation is an integral component of all educational planning and teaching. The important question for us to consider here is the kinds of evaluation that should be made. Evaluation must be on the basis of the purposes and aims of education. All of us concerned with the educational enterprise—teachers, administrators, boards of education, parents, and pupils—must first define the basic aims of education and then evaluate all practices and learning experiences in the school in terms of how well they contribute to the attainment of these aims. We evaluate the extent to which we have achieved our objectives and purposes.

Yet much too frequently in the field of education, we all utilize methods of evaluation that do not give us a true picture of the extent to which the school achieves the purposes for which it is designed. The methods used are narrow in scope, providing evidence on the attainment of only a portion of the objectives of the school, or they may not even measure achievement of these goals at all. The distressing fact is that educators then use the findings of these inadequate methods of appraisal as a basis for further planning, and often even to reformulate objectives and purposes of the school. Goals must be determined philosophically, utilizing a set of values, an understanding of cultural traditions and expectations, and a knowledge of the learners. We should evaluate the work of the school to determine how well these purposes are achieved, not to set the objectives themselves.

In this connection we need to be especially cautious in the use of standardized tests. These tests are prepared by test specialists, people who are external to the learning situation itself. The teacher needs to ascertain if such tests are trustworthy measures of objectives set for his particular school and group of pupils. If so, then of course their use is justified; otherwise they may give erroneous results. Moreover, standardized tests are not available for measuring many valid objectives of education. Complete reliance on those published to date may result in a warped appraisal of the total educational program, resulting in a mis-

placed emphasis on the outcomes we should strive for in teaching. When used properly by insightful teachers, standardized tests do have important contributions to make to evaluation.

This chapter has considered some of the important factors that shape secondary education in America. It is indeed difficult to assay properly their effect individually on the schools; obviously, some are much more significant than others. But out of this constellation of forces the program of secondary education emerges, changes, and improves.

For Further Study

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Forces Affecting American Education*. 1953 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1953.

An analysis of various pressures on the school and a consideration of some forces that shape education.

Brameld, Theodore B. *Cultural Foundations of Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

Considers interrelations of education and the culture, especially with respect to goals, process, and method.

Brookover, Wilbur B. *A Sociology of Education*. New York: American Book Company, 1955.

An excellent text on the social foundations of education, and the role of the school on social development. The teacher's contribution to social change is discussed in Part IV.

Dahlke, H. Otto. *Values in Culture and Classroom: A Study of the Sociology of the School*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958.

Discusses the sociocultural context of the school and informal social structures and relations within the school. In Chapter 18 social groups promoting special interests in relation to education are considered.

Douglass, Harl R., ed. *The High School Curriculum*. 2d ed. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956.

Chapters 2, 5, 6, and 9 discuss various forces that influence secondary education in this country.

Durkheim, Émile. *Education and Sociology*. Translated by Sherwood D. Fox. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956.

A recent translation of a very important book by one of the world's great sociologists who argues that education is eminently social in origin.

Ehlers, Henry, ed. *Crucial Issues in Education: An Anthology*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1955.

A collection of readings on some of the important factors that influence education and on some of the issues facing education today.

Havighurst, Robert J., and Bernice L. Neugarten. *Society and Education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1957.

The entire book deals with the relationships of the school to the culture. Parts III and IV are especially helpful.

Kandel, I. L. *American Education in the Twentieth Century*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957.

Discusses factors that have shaped American education, with a chapter on the development of secondary education.

Mead, Margaret. *New Lives for Old: Cultural Transformations, Manus, 1928-1953*. New York: William Morrow & Company, 1956.

A brilliant anthropologist describes fully how the people of Manus changed in a quarter of a century from a primitive to a civilized nation. Educational implications are great.

Meltzer, Bernard N., Harry R. Doby and Philip M. Smith. *Education in Society: Readings*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1958.

An excellent collection of readings on the social basis of education, and the influence of social forces on the program.

Mursell, James L. *Principles of Democratic Education*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1955.

Discusses the nature of democracy and the kinds of schools needed in a democratic society.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Citizen Co-operation for Better Public Schools*. Fifty-third Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Discusses the role of the citizen in the development of education, and gives illustrations of current practice in citizen cooperation.

Romine, Stephen A. *Building the High School Curriculum*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954.

Part I, "Orientation," and Part II, "Curriculum Foundations," consider factors that have influenced curriculum development in this country.

Smith, B. Othanel, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores. *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*. Rev. ed. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1957.

This book provides a thoroughgoing and extensive analysis of the sociological basis of the school curriculum. Part I, "Social Diagnosis for Curriculum Development," and Part V, "Theoretical Curriculum Issues," are especially pertinent.

Spindler, George D. "Education in a Transforming American Culture," *Harvard Educational Review*, 25:132-144 (Summer, 1955).

An excellent discussion of the relationship of education and society.

Spindler, George D., ed. *Education and Anthropology*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1955.

This series of papers and reports of discussions are highly significant source materials for students of the sociology of education. The paper by Siegel on the educative process in American communities is especially pertinent.

Stanley, William O., B. Othanel Smith, Kenneth D. Benne, and Archibald W. Anderson. *Social Foundations of Education*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1956.

This is a volume of readings on the social relationship of the school. Many of the articles constitute excellent source material on this topic.

6

The Purposes of the Secondary School

Part Two has thus far examined the secondary school as it exists in America today, traced the development of secondary education, and discussed the important influences on that development. All of these factors will now be brought together in the formulation of a set of purposes for American secondary education.

Those of us who work in the secondary school must formulate for ourselves a perspicuous and valid conception of the functions and purposes of the secondary school or our efforts may be ineffectual or even misdirected. In planning learning experiences for boys and girls, in organizing and administering a school, in guiding the growth and development of pupils, we must all have a sense of direction, a goal in mind, a reason for the decisions made and the steps taken; otherwise, the work of the school may fall short of its mark, so that pupils are not properly educated. Below will be listed some objectives and goals for secondary education in America that have been widely accepted; however, each teacher should formulate for himself a conception of the educative process and of the nature and purposes of education, utilizing the thinking of other people as may be appropriate, but finally coming to his own definition of educational goals and functions and of the role of the secondary school in our society.

The Nature of the Educational Process

At the outset of this discussion, some concepts essential to the definition of a philosophy of education should be stated.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Learning. Learning consists of the changes, with the exception of physiological changes, that occur in an individual as a result of experience. Thus learning is the residual of any experience that remains with the person for use in any future situation. Unless something is retained from an experience that the individual may use later, nothing has been learned. Learning may consist of (1) habits and skills, (2) the acquisition of knowledge and information, (3) attitudes, ideals, concepts, generalizations, and expectations that guide behavior, or (4) the development of ability, other than the sheer maturation of physical or intellectual ability.

Many interrelated learnings may result from an experience, particularly if it is a broad one. The building of attitudes, for example, depends on information and knowledge, as does the formulation of concepts and generalizations. One of the most important principles of teaching, to be kept in mind at all times, is that pupils may be learning a number of things at the same time.

Teaching. Teaching is the act of directing and managing the experiences of someone else so that learnings of the types deemed desirable by those engaged in the teaching process may be acquired by the learner. To teach means to do something to control the kinds of learnings that may be expected to occur, plan experiences for the learner, and guide his development toward anticipated ends. Teaching requires the formulation of purposes to guide the whole process, the acceptance by the pupils of these purposes as valid goals for themselves, the planning of experiences that promise to achieve the learnings envisioned, the direction of pupils as they engage in these activities, and the evaluation of the outcomes to see if the learner has acquired the learnings desired.

Education. In a broad sense, education is the sum total of experiences through which a person learns. It includes all the activities carried on by the school, the experiences the youngster has in the home that result in changes in behavior, those he has in the social group, with friends, and the like, and in fact a wide array of activities that result in learning. But in the narrower sense in which we usually use the term, education means the social process by which a person is provided with the experiences he needs in order to acquire desirable learnings.¹ Thus, because society deems it desirable that boys and girls be able to use English correctly, it has provided an educational system for the purpose, among other things, of teaching boys and girls to speak and write correctly.

¹ Philip H. Phenix, *Philosophy of Education* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1958), pp. 10-14.

Goals, aims, purposes, and objectives of education. In general usage these terms all mean much the same thing and are often used interchangeably, as they are used in this book. These terms are used to designate the kinds of learnings which those who plan the educational program hope will result from the experiences provided learners. It is obvious that the purposes, goals, aims, or objectives of the school (the particular term used is not crucial) constitute the starting point for all educational planning and practice. Thus, the aims of education state not only the aspects of growth and development which should come within the purview of the school, but the direction which growth should take.²

SCHOOL EXPERIENCES SHOULD BE MAXIMALLY EDUCATIVE

Since purposive activity, whenever it is experienced, results in learnings of some kind, young people acquire a great deal of knowledge, concepts, understanding, habits, skills, and ways of behaving outside the school. In fact a substantial part of the stock of learnings of any adult has undoubtedly resulted from experiences gained outside the formal program of education. In view of this fact, the role of the school becomes primarily one of improving and extending the quantity and quality of learning—of giving pupils a more comprehensive stock of knowledge, understandings, concepts, skills, habits, and ways of working than they would acquire in a hit-or-miss fashion out of school. The school should provide learning experiences that will make a maximum contribution to the education of all pupils, not duplicate learnings already acquired nor, on the other hand, neglect important areas of education in which the pupil has not yet acquired—nor is likely to acquire elsewhere—the learnings essential for him as a person and a citizen. The school exists to provide an organized program of learning activities that promise maximum attainment of valid aims and goals of education by all pupils.

The kinds of learning experiences that a school may provide are almost limitless; hence it is incumbent on teachers and all concerned with the educative process to select from among all of these possibilities only those that offer the most promise for achieving the ends of education. Herbert Spencer, the great English philosopher, well stated this axiom of educational planning a century ago:

The question which we contend is of such transcendent moment, is, not whether such or such knowledge is of worth, but what is its *relative worth*? . . . There is, perhaps, not a subject to which men devote attention that has not *some* value. . . .

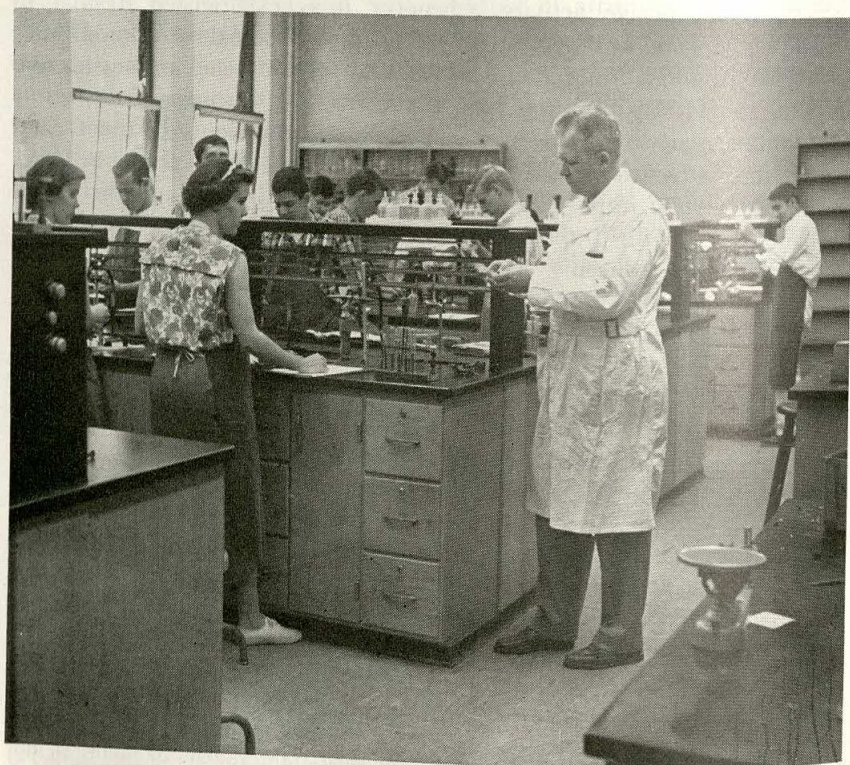
. . . Before there can be a rational *curriculum*, we must settle which things

² *Ibid.*, pp. 552-559.

it most concerns us to know; or, to use a word of Bacon's, now unfortunately obsolete—we must determine the relative value of knowledges.³

TEACHERS MUST PLAN WISELY

This makes the role of the teacher a significant one indeed, for he must be able to judge accurately what learnings will be of most worth for each pupil and what school experiences will provide such outcomes best. And his base for judging cannot be a limited one; he must be concerned for the proper growth and development of the pupil now, but foresee what learnings will be of most value to him in the future. He must be sensitive to social values and conditions and trends in cultural development, but also possess a keen understanding of the needs and developmental requirements of each boy and girl.



All Learning Experiences Provided by the School Should Be Maximally Educative. This chemistry teacher must determine what valid purposes of the school can best be served by laboratory activities. (Courtesy of the Evanston, Illinois, Township High School.)

³ Herbert Spencer, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1860), pp. 8-11.

Almost all the experiences that the school may provide will have some educative value, but the problem that always confronts those who plan the educational program is whether the activities planned will be *maximally* beneficial to the pupils involved. For example, since any pupil can take only a limited number of subjects or activities in high school, those responsible for planning the program must decide if a pupil will benefit more from the study of Latin, home economics, algebra, driver education, or American history. Would football comprise a better set of learning experiences than debate? And similarly, thousands of decisions of this sort must be made in planning an educational program. Furthermore, assume that American history is designated as a required course, just what kind of learning experiences should be carried on in the 180 or 200 class periods devoted to the subject so that maximum values for pupils result? Should the teacher show a film portraying the work of the Constitutional Convention? Should he require pupils to write a term paper? Should he permit pupils to suggest topics for discussion in developing a unit of work? These are examples of a few of the types of decisions teachers must make constantly as they seek to plan the best learning experiences possible for the pupils.

Who Should Formulate the Aims and Functions of Secondary Education?

In view of the importance in educational planning of defining the aims and functions of American secondary education, the question arises as to who should formulate such statements. In considering this matter, we need to distinguish among levels of educational aims.

IMMEDIATE, INTERMEDIATE, AND ULTIMATE AIMS

The ultimate aims of education are the fundamental and basic purposes assigned to the total educational enterprise. They define the end products of organized learning experience—the kind of society those who establish the schools accept as desirable and the kinds of persons who should constitute the social group. Ultimate aims simply restate for the purpose of educational planning the concepts of the good life held by that particular social group. It is quite apparent, then, that such aims are determined by the society that controls the schools. The ultimate aims of education in the United States, for example, are different from those in Russia. Aims embody the beliefs, values, traditions, and aspirations of a people.⁴ An example of an ultimate aim of education

⁴ An excellent example of the efforts of a staff of a school system to define the basic value patterns of American life and to draw out the implications for school practice is found in a publication of the Cincinnati Public Schools, *Foundation Values of American Life* (Cincinnati: The Schools, 1954).

for American schools is the development of the individual to the fullest extent possible in terms of his potentialities and capacities.

Intermediate aims are comprised of specific statements of objectives that guide educational planning in a school. They define in greater detail the kinds of learning experiences the school should provide and the direction that growth and development should take in these aspects of education. Obviously, they must be consistent with the ultimate aims of education and state ways in which these aims may be attained. For example, in seeking to foster the fullest development of the individual, the pupils should acquire basic knowledge about the world in which he lives. This, then, becomes an intermediate aim, one to be used in planning the program of the school.

Immediate aims guide the development of the learning experiences themselves. They determine the character of the day-by-day activities of the school, the nature of classroom work, and the kinds of administrative policies promulgated. A teacher assigns a chapter in a history book to be studied. His purpose is to enable pupils to gain information on a particular aspect of history. Their attainment of this immediate objective will, it is believed, contribute to the acquisition of important knowledge, which will better enable them to develop their potentialities. It is difficult in practice to differentiate clearly among levels of educational aims, but this is not of major consequence; what is important is to make certain that the aims set for any educational act are consistent with, and contributory to the achievement of, the ultimate aims of education.

FORMULATION OF AIMS AND FUNCTIONS

At the operational level, the individual teacher, the faculty of the school, and the entire staff of a local school system will have the primary responsibility for defining the aims and functions of the school. The classroom teacher who assigns pupils a chapter in history to study has an aim in mind as the reason for carrying out such learning activity. He may not have stated or even thought out his aim explicitly, but his very act of making the assignment implies a purpose. And so the actions of every teacher many times each school day give expression to purpose or aim.

The fact that the study of history was given a place in the school curriculum is also an expression of an aim, whether formulated explicitly or implied. The subject was placed in the curriculum and remains a part of it from year to year because of actions taken by school officials. Thus, they, too, are formulating aims of education by every action they take to give direction to the learning experiences provided pupils. By the official actions it takes, the board of education joins in giving substance to aims of education. The state department of education in promulgat-

ing regulations and in supervising schools, the legislature of the state in enacting laws of many kinds relating to education are both contributing in one way or another to the definition of aims and functions of education.

As was discussed in Chapter 5, many other agencies and groups of people, such as professional organizations, also contribute to the development of educational practice, and such actions inevitably must reflect some conception of educational aims and goals.

All aims that guide educational planning must, however, ultimately square with what the total society, as voiced through its agencies of social control, believes to be proper and valid goals for education in this country. It is the social group that sets the ultimate goals of education, and all subsidiary goals must be in harmony with them and contribute to their achievement. The formulation of aims is the most exacting task that faces teachers, administrators, and boards of education as they give expression to aims of education in planning class activities, designing school curriculums, formulating school policies, and the like.

How Do We Determine What Should Be the Aims and Functions of the Secondary School?

As they set about the task of defining the purposes and functions of the American secondary school, teachers and school officials need some basis for determining whether their aims are valid and proper. What constitute standards for validating aims of education? As was pointed out in Chapter 2, John Dewey defined the two basic factors that must be considered in developing a theory of education. Because of their importance in the formulation of aims of education, they are again stated here:

The fundamental factors in the educative process are an immature, undeveloped being; and certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult.⁵

All educational planning must be based on a consideration of (1) the values, beliefs, traditions, mores, expectations, and aspirations of the society that establishes and maintains the school, and (2) the developmental characteristics, needs, interests, potentialities, capacities, and aspirations of the boys and girls who attend the school. It is on these foundation stones that we erect our edifice of educational objectives. But we must develop our objectives philosophically, by the exercise of judgment. There is no magical formula by which we can manipulate these factors and arrive at a set of aims. It is solely an intellectual process. The process may be illustrated schematically by Figure 6.

⁵ John Dewey, *The Child and the Curriculum* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1902), p. 7. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

Inadequately, for no diagram can possibly portray an intellectual activity, this chart shows the processes involved in planning an educational program for youth. To define aims and to plan, is primarily the responsibility of the members of the professional staff of the school, although they will want to bring parents, other citizens, and pupils into the deliberations. Those who plan an educational program need to analyze very thoroughly the characteristics of the pupils who constitute the learners of the school and of the social group which established and controls the school, although this group must not be conceived too nar-

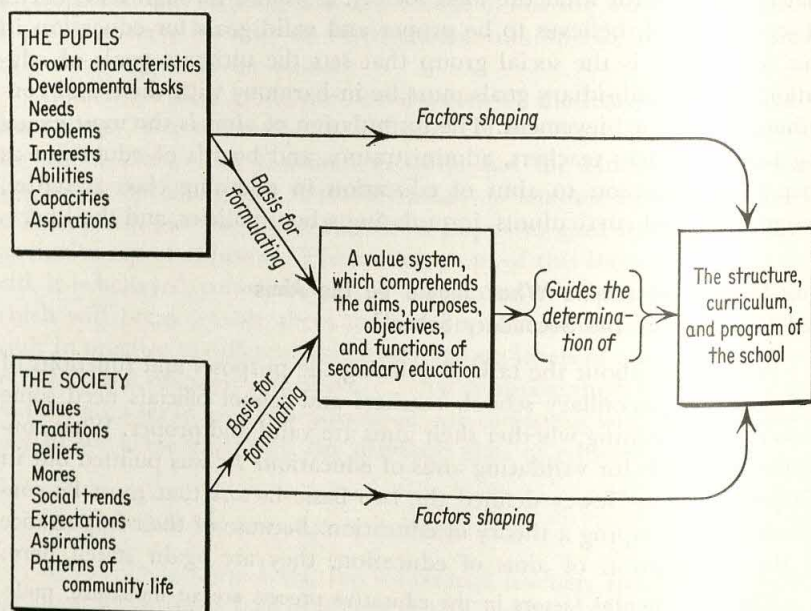


Figure 6. The Process of Educational Planning.

rowly. Considerable attention has been given in this book to such analyses in Chapters 2, 3, and 5. So that their planning may be definitive and significant, those who formulate the program for a particular school in any community of America will need to make similar studies of youth of that community and of the particular value patterns and aspects of community life.

Having fashioned a clear, sound, and valid set of purposes for their school, and a conception of the role and function of secondary education in American life, the teachers will be in a position to plan for pupils learning experiences that promise to contribute maximally to the attainment of these purposes. But in selecting learning experiences from among the many that may be provided, they will choose those that are of interest,

meaning, and significance to those particular pupils in terms of their past experiences, of environmental factors in their daily living, and of their aspirations, and also that contribute to the understanding and improvement of life in that particular community.

To illustrate, we would all agree that one of the important objectives of the secondary school is to enable pupils to use English correctly and fluently in written and spoken communication. Thus, all high schools throughout the country offer courses in English and provide learning experiences in using good English. But what should be the specific nature of the learning experiences provided in a particular high school? This is a decision that must be made by the staff of the local school, and especially by the teachers of English. Probably these teachers everywhere will require their pupils to write themes or papers of some sort, but the topics chosen for such papers ought to grow out of the interests and past experiences of the youngsters enrolled in a specific class. In Florida, for example, they might write about the citrus fruit industry, the economic development of Florida during the past fifteen years, the joys of deep-sea fishing, or a fable about the fountain of youth. In Nebraska they might write about the necessity of conserving our topsoil, the agricultural resources of the state, the life of the Indians who inhabited the region in earlier times, the hardships of pioneer life, a prairie fire, or the like. Pupils in a California high school might write on still different subjects. Thus, all secondary schools would be seeking to develop competency in the use of English, but the activities in which pupils engage in acquiring this proficiency, the experiences themselves, the things discussed and studied, the things done in class, would vary considerably from community to community, from region to region, and even from classroom to classroom within the same building. Each teacher, utilizing his creative talents and insight, would want to select learning experiences that were most meaningful and significant to his particular class, yet offer the most promise of achieving the fundamental objectives of the school.

Fundamental to all educational endeavors, then, is the formulation of purposes and objectives for the school, and for each major type of educational experience so that it will contribute to the realization of these anticipated outcomes. Let us now proceed to a consideration of the functions and aims of secondary education in American life.

The Functions of the Secondary School in American Society

As was stated in Chapter 5, the school is an institution established by society to perform certain social functions. In this discussion of the basic concepts that should guide educational planning in the secondary

school, it seems desirable, then, to consider those functions which it should serve. A clear definition of function is essential for the formulation of valid goals for the high school.

By functions we mean the acts, activities, or operations expected of the school in fulfillment of its status as a social agency. A definition of functions sets the framework within which the school carries out its basic purposes and operates to achieve its goals. Ever since the founding of the secondary school in this country, citizens and educators have been concerned about the functions which it should serve in our society. For our purposes, two of the most significant statements of functions have been formulated by Inglis⁶ and Briggs.⁷ Students of secondary education will want to become familiar with their definitions. The following list is offered as representing present-day thinking about the functions of secondary education. School staffs and individual teachers may well formulate their own statements of functions as a basis for the definition of goals and objectives for the secondary school. Our list of functions follows.

1. *Universal education.* To provide an appropriate education for all youth of the nation.

2. *Exploration of individual talents, capabilities, and interests.* To enable each adolescent to determine what comprise his personal potentialities for growth and development; to understand himself in terms of his abilities, capacities, talents, and basic interests; and to set appropriate aspiration levels for himself.

3. *Development of individual potentialities.* To establish a program of education that will enable all youth to develop their talents and abilities so that they may live maximally satisfying lives and contribute significantly to the definition and achievement of the good life by the entire social group.

4. *Conservation of the cultural heritage.* To teach pupils the essential and desirable elements of the cultural heritage so that it may be preserved and extended.

5. *Systemization of knowledge.* To help the pupil organize facts, understandings, and generalizations into systems of knowledge that may be used effectively in determining future courses of action.

6. *Formulation of personality.* To guide the development of personality so that the individual will exemplify those behavioral traits that are essential for successful living in the social group.

⁶ Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918), pp. 375-383, 668-669.

⁷ Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933), pp. 252-288.

7. *Formulation of a valid system of values.* To guide each pupil in the acquisition of value patterns and modes of behavior that are appropriate for the society in which he lives.

8. *Inculcation of social traditions and beliefs.* To ensure that each pupil knows, understands, and exemplifies in behavior the basic concepts that characterize the social life of the group.

9. *Preparation for adulthood.* To provide worth-while and maximally educative learning experiences that will enable the adolescent to fulfill an adequate and appropriate role in the society as he attains adulthood.

The Aims and Purposes of Secondary Education

Once we have properly defined the functions of secondary education in American life we are in a position to formulate aims and objectives for the school. The aims of secondary education have been defined in one form or another since schools were first established. As was noted in Chapter 4, the "Old Deluder, Satan" law, passed in 1647 by the Massachusetts Bay Colony, stated that the grammar school should "instruct youth so far as they shall be fitted for the university." But Franklin envisioned secondary education as being broader in purpose, so in formulating the plan for his academy in 1749 he "propos'd that they learn those things that are likely to be *most useful* and *most ornamental*." The citizens of Boston, in establishing the first public American high school, wanted a school that would serve the broad purpose of preparing youth for life.

SPENCER'S DEFINITION OF PURPOSE

In his famous essays on education, published in British magazines in 1859 and 1860, Herbert Spencer, the first great apostle of modern educational theory, presented a bold, comprehensive program for the secondary schools. He defined the function of education (primarily he referred to secondary education) in these terms:

How to live?—that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. The general problem which comprehends every special problem is—the right ruling of conduct in all directions under all circumstances. . . . To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of any educational course is, to judge in what degree it discharges such function.⁸

⁸ Spencer, *op. cit.*, pp. 11-12.

Spencer classified into five categories the chief activities that constitute human life:

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation;
2. Those activities which, by securing the necessities of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation;
3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and disciplining of offspring;
4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations;
5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life devoted to the gratification of tastes and feeling.⁹

He had this concept of the aim of education:

Of course the ideal of education is—complete preparation in all these divisions. But failing this ideal, as in our phase of civilization every one must do more or less, the aim should be to maintain *a due proportion* between the degrees of preparation in each.¹⁰

This basic concept has more or less permeated all statements of educational objectives since the turn of the century, although here and there we still find individuals who conceive secondary education much more narrowly, or at least who believe that these objectives, if they accept them at all, can be attained through a program that is greatly restricted in scope.¹¹

THE CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Probably the most significant statement of the purposes of secondary education ever formulated in this country is the so-called Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, prepared by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and published in 1918. Not only does this statement epitomize the best educational thought in this country even to this day, but it has guided educational planning for over four decades. Its influence on the development of secondary education has been pervasive. The American public high school flowered into the great institution it is today because it developed a program designed to fulfill these basic purposes—purposes based on a concept of education for life itself.

In defining the goals of education, the commission recognized that the schools must serve both the society which establishes the schools

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 13-14.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

¹¹ The point of view of Arthur Bestor and similar critics is an example. See Chapter 3.

and the pupils who are to be educated. Social ends would be served by the development of the individual along socially approved lines.

Consequently, education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward even nobler ends.¹²

The commission followed Spencer in declaring that goals of education should be based on the life activities of the individual, considered as an integrated whole. On the basis of such an analysis, the group formulated the following list as the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education:

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. Health

The secondary school should therefore provide health instruction, inculcate health habits, organize an effective program of physical activities, regard health needs in planning work and play, and cooperate with home and community in safeguarding and promoting health interests.

2. Command of fundamental processes

The facility that a child of 12 or 14 may acquire in the use of these tools is not sufficient for the needs of modern life.

3. Worthy home-membership

Worthy home-membership as an objective calls for the development of those qualities that make the individual a worthy member of a family, both contributing to and deriving benefit from that membership.

4. Vocation

Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him, to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain the right relationships toward his fellow workers and society, and, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best development.

5. Civic education

Civic education should develop in the individual those qualities whereby he will act well his part as a member of neighborhood, town or city, State, and Nation, and give him a basis for understanding international problems.

6. Worthy use of leisure

Education should equip the individual to secure from his leisure the recreation of body, mind, and spirit, and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality.

¹² Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 35; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918), p. 9.

7. Ethical character

In a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among the objectives of the secondary school.¹³

No one would be so bold as to maintain that the secondary schools of this country have offered an educational program that completely enabled all youth to attain these objectives to the fullest extent desirable, but the principles have guided the schools in providing a wide variety of learning experiences that exalt human personality and contribute to the fulfillment of our democratic traditions for all the children of all the people.

IMPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

Comparable to the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education as a statement of objectives for the American secondary school, and based on it, is the "Imperative Educational Needs of Youth," prepared by the Educational Policies Commission. This set of purposes was published in 1944, and was used by the commission as a basis for describing a hypothetical secondary school that would offer a program designed to achieve these basic objectives. As will be noted from a close study of these ten needs—or objectives, as they really are—they encompass the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, but extend the list somewhat and describe more fully outcomes desired. The statement follows.

IMPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.
6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-15.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty, in literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely; balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others.
10. All youth need to grow in ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.¹⁴

The National Association of Secondary School Principals has extended the statement by listing curriculum experiences that contribute to a realization of each need.¹⁵ Many local school systems have adopted these ten imperative needs as their statement of objectives; in recent years they have been widely used as a basis for curriculum planning.

WHAT SHOULD OUR SCHOOLS ACCOMPLISH?

In 1954 the Eighty-third Congress passed a law authorizing the President of the United States to hold a White House Conference on Education. It also appropriated money for distribution to the states and territories to defray the costs of holding state conferences on education. The purpose of the act was to encourage a nation-wide study of education and problems related to the development of the best programs of education possible.

President Eisenhower appointed a committee of thirty-six prominent citizens, including some educators, to plan and direct the national meeting. State conferences were held during 1955, with this year of study culminating in the White House Conference on Education, November 28–December 1, 1955. The presidential committee then submitted a final report to the President, which included its own findings and recommendations, a report of the deliberations of the conference, and a summary of the reports of the state and territorial conferences called by governors at the request of the President.

One of the topics included on the agenda of the conference and recommended as a topic for discussion by the state conferences was "What Should Our Schools Accomplish?" In its report, the committee

¹⁴ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 225–226. Also republished in the revised edition, *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*, 1952, p. 216. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

¹⁵ "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Vol. XXXI, No. 145, March, 1947.

submitted the following statement of the purposes the modern school is expected to serve:

WHAT SHOULD OUR SCHOOLS ACCOMPLISH?

1. A general education as good or better than that offered in the past, with increased emphasis on the physical and social sciences.
2. Programs designed to develop patriotism and good citizenship.
3. Programs designed to foster moral, ethical, and spiritual values.
4. Vocational education tailored to the abilities of each pupil and to the needs of community and Nation.
5. Courses designed to teach domestic skills.
6. Training in leisure-time activities such as music, dancing, avocational reading, and hobbies.
7. A variety of health services for all children, including both physical and dental inspections, and instruction aimed at bettering health knowledge and habits.
8. Special treatment for children with speech or reading difficulties and other handicaps.
9. Physical education, ranging from systematic exercises, physical therapy, and intramural sports, to interscholastic athletic competition.
10. Instruction to meet the needs of the abler students.
11. Programs designed to acquaint students with countries other than their own in an effort to help them understand the problems America faces in international relations.
12. Programs designed to foster mental health.
13. Programs designed to foster wholesome family life.
14. Organized recreational and social activities.
15. Courses designed to promote safety. These include instruction in driving automobiles, swimming, civil defense, etc.¹⁶

The committee wisely pointed out that these goals represent public demands on the schools:

Nothing was more evident at the White House Conference on Education than the fact that these goals, representing as they do an enormously wide range of purposes, are the answer to a genuine public demand. These goals have, after all, been hammered out at countless school board meetings during the past quarter-century throughout the land.¹⁷

Indeed, we all recognize that these functions of the school do denote the citizens' expectations for the education of the young.

¹⁶ The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, *A Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), pp. 8-9.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

BEHAVIORAL GOALS OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN HIGH SCHOOL

A significant endeavor to define the goals of general education at the secondary school level in terms of behavioral outcomes resulted in the publication in 1957 of a comprehensive report, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School*.¹⁸ This definition of objectives for the secondary school is based on an earlier statement of purposes of education, prepared by the Educational Policies Commission,¹⁹ but it greatly extends that list by stating the kinds of behavior which pupils should develop as a result of educational experiences provided by the high school.

A large number of educators participated in the formulation of the statement. The project was under the direction of the Educational Testing Service, the Russell Sage Foundation, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. The report is particularly valuable to teachers, curriculum committees, and school faculties, for it not only states in great detail the kinds of behavior that should result from the general education program of the high school, but also provides a long list of behavioral traits that illustrate attainment of the stated goals. The report is being widely used in determining types of learning experiences to be provided in specific subjects and activities of the school.

Because of the significance of the report for American education, we are quoting here in full the major categories of behavioral goals listed. Readers should refer to the complete report for a detailed list of outcomes accepted as valid for secondary education.

BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN HIGH SCHOOL

1. Growing Toward Self-Realization

1.1 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Intellectual Self-Realization

1.11 Improving His Study Habits, Study Skills, and Other Work Habits

1.12 Improving in His Ability to Communicate Ideas and to Recognize and Use Good Standards

1.13 Becoming Sensitive to, and Competent in, the Use of Logical Thinking and Problem-Solving Processes

1.2 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Cultural Orientation and Integration

1.21 Revealing the Personal Understandings and Characteristics of the Good Citizen

¹⁸ Will French and associates, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957).

¹⁹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938).

- 1.22 Attaining a Perspective on Present-Day Events, Cultures, and Conditions
- 1.23 Attaining Orientation to the Physical World and Appreciation of What Scientific Advancements Mean to the World
- 1.24 Improving in Ability to Apply Ethical Values as Gained from Religion, Philosophy, and Direct Experience to His Own Decisions and Behavior
- 1.25 Developing Aesthetic and Artistic Appreciation
- 1.3 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Personal Mental and Physical Health
 - 1.31 Improving in Understanding and Control of Emotional Self
 - 1.32 Improving in Understanding and Control of Physical Self
 - 1.33 Showing Intelligent Use of Accepted Health Practices, and Wise Action on Health Problems
 - 1.34 Making Intelligent Use of Accepted Safety Practices
- 1.4 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Economic Literacy and Independence
 - 1.41 Preparing to Make Intelligent Choice of Life-Work
 - 1.42 Becoming a More Efficient Worker Through Actual Work Experiences
 - 1.43 Becoming a More Intelligent and Economically Literate Consumer
 - 1.44 Manifesting Intelligent Understanding of Our National Economic Life and Institutions
2. Growing in Ability to Maintain Desirable Small (Face-to-Face) Group Relationships
 - 2.1 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Intellectual Growth and Development
 - 2.11 Manifesting Acceptable Family Membership
 - 2.12 Sustaining Friendly Contacts with One's Friends and with Others in Small Unorganized Groups
 - 2.13 Developing Behaviors Indicative of the Kinds of Competence Needed as a Member of Small Organized Groups
 - 2.2 Developing Behaviors in Small Group Situations Indicative of Cultural Orientation and Integration
 - 2.21 Improving Understandings and Attitudes Which Facilitate Desirable Relationships Within the Family
 - 2.22 Adopting Cultural and Social Amenities Required in Contacts with Friends and Others in Small Unorganized Groups, and Desirable Interpersonal Attitudes and Skills in Processes Needed in Such Groups
 - 2.23 Utilizing Various Kinds of Competence Needed by Members of Small Organized Community Groups
 - 2.3 Developing Behaviors Involved in Maintaining Physical and Mental Health and Safety in Small (Face-to-Face) Group Situations
 - 2.31 Maintaining Health in the Home

- 2.32 Maintaining Health as a Participant in Small Peer-Groups
- 2.33 Contributing to Health and Safety in Small Group Situations in School and Community
- 2.4 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Economic Competence and Independence in Small Group Situations
 - 2.41 Improving Economic Competence and Independence in Family and Small Group Situations
 - 2.42 Becoming a Good Member of Work-Groups
 - 2.43 Manifesting Interest and Participation in the Economic Affairs of the Community
- 3. Growing in Ability to Maintain the Relationships Imposed by Membership in Large Organizations
 - 3.1 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Intellectual Growth and Development
 - 3.11 Becoming Intellectually Able to Follow Developments on the World and National Levels and to Formulate Opinions About Proposed Solutions to Some of the Principal Problems and Issues
 - 3.12 Identifying Himself with Large Groups and Organizations Interested in Cultural, Social, Economic, and Political Affairs, and Becoming an Effective Member of Them
 - 3.13 Evidencing Intelligent Appreciation and Support of Democratic Goals and Principles and of American Cultural, Social, and Political Traditions
 - 3.2 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Cultural Orientation and Integration
 - 3.21 Viewing Current Events and Conditions in This Country and in the World in the Light of Their Historic and Cultural Pasts
 - 3.22 Developing Cultural Background Through Reading and Participating in Various Cultural Organizations and Activities
 - 3.23 Seeing Vocational Activities in Their Cultural Settings
 - 3.3 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Understanding Problems of Mental and Physical Health
 - 3.31 Recognizing Health as a World Problem, and Supporting Worldwide Scientific and Humanitarian Efforts and Organizations
 - 3.32 Appreciating and Supporting Work and Services of Federal, State, and Local Health and Safety Departments, and of Volunteer Organizations
 - 3.4 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Economic Competence and Independence
 - 3.41 Recognizing the Worldwide Application of Economic Principles and the Economic Interdependence of the Peoples of the World
 - 3.42 Supporting Measures of Federal, State, and Local Government, and Voluntary Organizations Designed to Conserve Human and Natural Resources
 - 3.43 Understanding the Need for Federal and State Governments' Stimu-

lative and Regulatory Activities in Economic Matters and Affairs as Means of Making Our Free Enterprise System Work

- 3.44 Sensing the Principal Problems Involved in the Operation of Our Economic System and Revealing an Interest in Maintaining and Expanding Its Values
- 3.45 Recognizing the Problems Related to Organized Business and Organized Labor; Being Sensitive to Both the Uses and Abuses of These Rights.²⁰

Formulation of Goals by Local School Systems

As stated previously, in the final analysis it is the staff members of the local school who must take responsibility for formulating its objectives. The school staff members will in a large measure determine the nature of the program and curriculum of the school; hence it is inevitable that in the process they must come to some decision about the purposes and functions of the school. Even if state or national agencies wished to set goals for the secondary school, they could at most have only a secondary influence, since the teachers who plan and guide learning experiences of pupils will still have the primary responsibility for determining the educational outcomes that will result from school experience. The program provided, the subjects offered, the extraclass activities sponsored, and the kinds of things boys and girls do in classrooms under the direction of the teachers determine the outcomes that will actually be attained, and hence become at least the functional purposes of the school.

The operational purposes of secondary education, then, have truly been "hammered out," as the President's Committee said, in local school systems throughout the land. Unfortunately, not too many faculties have undertaken this task deliberately and overtly; too frequently teachers, boards of education, and administrative staffs continue year after year to offer a program that is rooted in traditional practices without subjecting it to critical evaluation in terms of its potentialities for realizing a clearly formulated set of valid objectives. Teachers continue to teach school subjects or direct activities in a cut-and-dried pattern without bothering to determine if these methods offer the most promise for achieving desired goals. The best possible choices of learning experiences for boys and girls can only be made in terms of clearly conceived objectives that are contributing to the ultimate purposes of secondary education in our American democracy. It is incumbent on each school faculty, then, and on each teacher individually to formulate a valid conception of the educative process as a basis for planning learning experiences for the pupils directly concerned.

²⁰ French, *op. cit.*, pp. 92-213. Reprinted by permission of the Russell Sage Foundation.

VALUE OF STATEMENTS OF GOALS

We may ask, then, what is the value of statements of goals of education formulated by national groups or agencies or by authorities in the field of secondary education, such as were presented in the previous section. The answer is simple: Their value lies in whatever use the staffs of local secondary schools and individual teachers wish to make of them as they formulate objectives for their own instructional programs. Just as our understandings and insights are broadened and deepened and brought into sharper focus by weighing and analyzing the points of view and thoughts of great minds in any area, so teachers may benefit greatly in clarifying their own conceptions about the educative process by reading and studying the significant contributions of educational commissions and agencies that embody in their membership outstanding thinkers and leaders in the field of education as well as the contributions of our distinguished educational philosophers and writers.

Thus, in formulating objectives and purposes for education, we agree that each teacher must come to grips with this matter individually as he plans and guides instruction; that the faculty of a school must set goals as a basis for educational planning; that a community, functioning officially through its board of education but responding informally in many ways, must formulate some concepts of the kind of education they want for their children; and that state and national agencies, commissions, and committees and leaders in the field of educational thought may provide assistance by presenting basic concepts and points of view for the information and guidance of all concerned. The determination of valid objectives of education, from the immediate purposes of a class as it carries forward the work of the period to the definition of ultimate goals and objectives for education in a democratic country, is a fundamental and engrossing undertaking.

DEFINITION OF PURPOSES BY LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

In view of the utmost importance of defining goals and objectives for the secondary school, it seems desirable at this point to give some examples of the process used by a few selected school systems in defining objectives and to list the purposes developed through such a program of study and discussion.

Schenectady, New York. In 1952 the Schenectady Public Schools decided that it would be desirable to formulate a set of objectives for the secondary schools of that city. The process used in that community to define objectives is described in a report of the Board of Education.²¹

²¹ Board of Education of the City of Schenectady, New York, *Schenectady Looks to the Future in Youth Education* (Schenectady: The Board, 1954).

First, a committee of nineteen, composed of citizens of the community and members of the staff of the public school, was created by the Board of Education. This group was charged with the responsibility of making a study to determine trends and goals of modern secondary education. As a result of its deliberations, the group recommended that the Ten Imperative Needs of Youth²² become the goals of the Schenectady secondary schools. Here, then, is an example of a community which accepted the responsibility of defining goals for its own schools, and which, after due study of the matter, decided that a list of objectives formulated by a national commission constituted the best statement for its own schools. The committee then set about the task of determining the kind of program of secondary education needed in that city to implement these purposes. The broad outlines of the program are included in the report.

It is our own belief that the Schenectady program is one of the most thorough and comprehensive examples of educational planning carried out in this country in recent years. The published report is a blueprint for the development of a rich and comprehensive program of education for youth.

Edsel Ford High School. Another forward-looking piece of educational planning was carried out by the Dearborn (Michigan) Public Schools, particularly in relation to the establishment of the new Edsel Ford High School. The building of this school became the occasion for a system-wide study of objectives and goals, as well as for the formulation of a program for the new school. In the city-wide study three committees were organized: a citizens' committee of forty-five members; a teachers' planning committee of forty-four members; and a central planning committee of four administrative officials. A philosophy of secondary education and its objectives were tentatively formulated by the staff committee, and the citizens' group reached certain conclusions on the kind of educational program it wanted in the schools.²³

During this study, the building of a new senior high school was authorized, the study of goals being expanded to include the development of plans for the school. An Edsel Ford High School Citizens' Committee undertook a thorough study of the views of the citizens on the curriculum and facilities to be provided in the new school. But the most extensive aspect of the study was carried out by a group of twenty-six teachers who were released from teaching duties to spend six months in planning at a major university. During each afternoon of the subsequent two years they continued the work of planning an educational program.

²² See pages 214-215.

²³ George E. Mills, "Edsel Ford Senior High School," *Nation's Schools*, 55:68-76 (March, 1955).

Funds for this purpose were made available by the Ford Foundation.²⁴

Early in their study the committee of teachers agreed on four questions which they felt must be answered in developing an educational program:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Basic to the entire process of planning is the determination of purposes. The schools recognize this in stating:

Therefore, in planning the Edsel Ford High School program, careful consideration was given to the purposes of high school education. These purposes are derived from the needs of high school youth, as determined both by the nature of the individual himself and by the demands of the society in which he must live. Consequently, a great deal of time was given to identifying and analyzing these needs.²⁵

As a result of this comprehensive and careful study, the teachers formulated a list of sixteen aims for the high school:

THE AIMS OF EDESEL FORD HIGH SCHOOL

1. To provide opportunity and guidance for the fullest development of the individual through discovery and appraisal of his strengths and weaknesses, so that he may make satisfactory progress toward self-realization.
2. To provide opportunity for the student to understand and practice the principles of sound physical and mental health.
3. To develop in the student understandings and abilities which will assist him to make a significant contribution to his present and future home and family.
4. To provide the student with experiences that will help him to make an intelligent choice of occupation and provide him with opportunities to acquire skills, abilities, understandings, and attitudes that will enable him to become a productive participant in an occupational area for which he is suited.
5. To provide experiences that will offer opportunity for each individual to appreciate order, power, and beauty in literature, art, music, and nature and to participate in the arts of creative expression in order that his life may be enriched.
6. To provide experiences that will contribute to a worthwhile use of leisure time by enabling every student to discover and develop specific talents, interests, and capacities.
7. To provide opportunity for the student to develop ethical and aesthetic

²⁴ Dearborn Board of Education, *Edsel Ford High School* (Dearborn, Mich.: The Board, 1956).

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

values and an understanding of moral principles as a basis for a philosophy of life in accordance with which he may make value judgments.

8. To provide opportunities for the understanding and appreciation of democracy as a way of life appropriate for all phases of living.

9. To provide opportunities for the understanding and appreciation of our American heritage and its relation to other societies and cultures.

10. To develop in the student an understanding and appreciation of the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of the individual in our democratic society and to assist him in an intelligent assumption of those responsibilities by providing opportunities for the practice of democratic living.

11. To develop in the student an understanding of the social, political, and economic structure of our society.

12. To develop in the student an understanding of scientific facts and principles essential in interpreting the world in which he lives and a broad understanding of technological and scientific changes and their effects on the society and culture of which he is a part.

13. To enable the student to communicate effectively.

14. To aid the student in developing habits of good workmanship.

15. To provide experiences which will aid the student in the organization of knowledge acquired or being acquired and which will increase the significance and application of that knowledge.

16. To develop in the student ability in critical and analytical thinking and other aspects of problem solving.²⁶

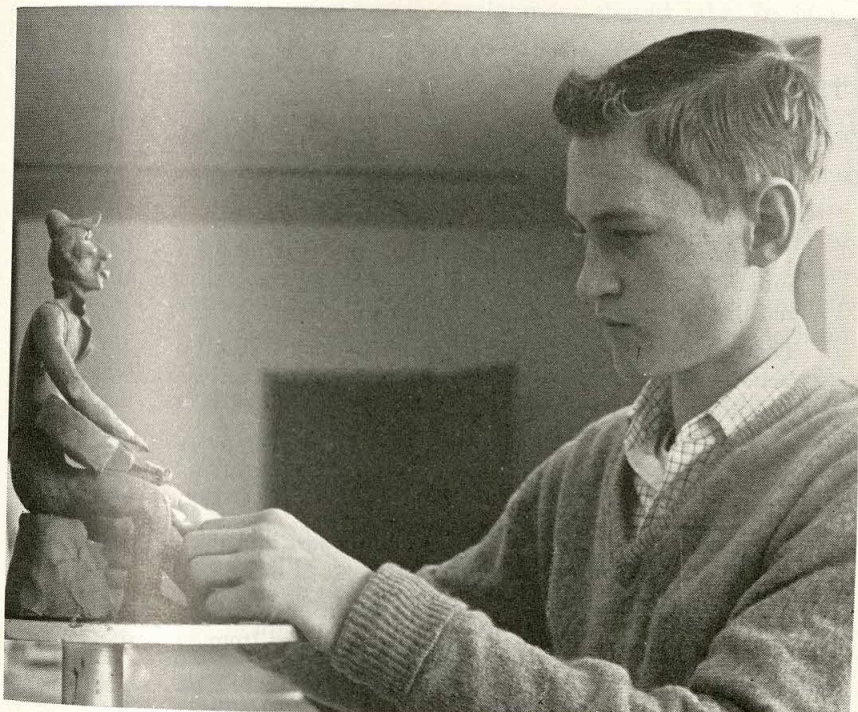
The program of the school was then planned to serve these basic aims. Later, the same general approach to educational planning was used in developing the program for the New Dearborn High School.²⁷

John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton Massachusetts. A comprehensive and extended program of planning and development has been carried on by the faculty of the John W. Weeks Junior High School of Newton.²⁸ At the initiation of the program in 1946 a steering committee was elected by the faculty to direct the study. Twenty parents were invited to join the forty staff members in the project. Six committees were organized to analyze research and to make studies of adolescent development, the nature of learning, the characteristics of the community, the needs and interests of pupils enrolled in the school, and curriculum experiments in other schools throughout the country. Outside consultants were employed, and a bulletin was published

²⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-10. Reprinted by permission of Stuart L. Openlander, Superintendent of the Dearborn (Michigan) Public Schools.

²⁷ Dearborn Public Schools, Division of Senior High Schools and Henry Ford Community College, "The Curriculum of the Senior High Schools" (Dearborn, Mich.: The Schools, June, 1957). Mimeographed.

²⁸ Newton Public Schools, Faculty of John W. Weeks Junior High School, *Education at Weeks* (Newton: The Schools, 1957).



An Important Objective of Secondary Education Is to Develop an Appreciation of Beauty and to Learn to Express One's Self Creatively. This pupil is sculpturing a miniature figure in a crafts workshop. (Courtesy of the North Central High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.)

quarterly to provide better communication with all parents. Workshops and in-service classes of various kinds were held over the years.

As an outcome of the study, the faculty, in cooperation with the parents' group, decided that the program at Weeks should be based on these things:

What teachers know about the pupils they are teaching and the way these pupils learn

What teachers believe should be important provisions of the school program if it is to be consistent with this knowledge

What teachers expect of themselves if they are to work harmoniously with what they know and believe

With this foundation we set forth our goals of education for boys and girls during their three years at Weeks Junior High School.²⁹

The statement of goals is as follows:

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

GOALS FOR SUCCESSFUL LIVING

This We Expect of the Pupil:

That he show a growing ability to understand his strengths and weaknesses and a willingness to assume responsibility for himself and his group in meeting problem situations in the school, home and community.

That he manifest a growing understanding of the need for self-control, authority, and leadership in home, school, and recreational situations, and that he respect and comply with regulations.

That he become increasingly independent in his ability to gain satisfaction for himself and to enjoy others, both through service and through recreational activities.

That he set short and long-term goals for himself, work consistently toward achieving these goals, and make frequent evaluation of his own progress.

That he enjoy his school life for the most part and take pride in the quality of the work he produces and in his ability to achieve results.

That he show a growing understanding and acceptance of those whose cultural, social, and economic backgrounds differ from his own.

That he grow consistently in his ability to gain knowledge, to solve problems, and to convey satisfactorily to others the results of his thinking.

That he demonstrate increased ability and eagerness to work cooperatively with others on problems of concern to the groups of which he is a member.³⁰

These three school systems exemplify ways in which the purposes of secondary education have been defined. Many secondary schools throughout the nation have at one time or another formulated a statement of their goals or have accepted overtly or tacitly a list formulated under the direction of their state department of education or by a national agency, such as the Educational Policies Commission.

Use of Purposes in Educational Planning

What use should be made of a statement of goals once it has been formulated by the faculty of a secondary school? The purposes which such a statement may serve may be summarized as follows:

1. *To guide educational planning.* All planning must proceed in terms of some basic postulates, some concept of what end is sought, and

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 7-12.

some vision of the direction pupil development should take. In planning an educational program for boys and girls, a valid set of objectives would seem to be a prerequisite. Decisions on what subjects to offer, what activities to sponsor, how to regulate the life of the school, what requirements to set for graduation, how to organize the school, and a myriad of similar decisions must be based on a philosophy of education, which includes a set of objectives for the school. Similarly, in planning instruction and the learning activities of the classroom, teachers need to envision clearly what outcomes are sought, so that teaching and learning may be maximally effective. Ultimate, intermediate, and immediate aims should become the basis for all educational planning and decision making.

2. *To define the role of the school.* The school is only one, albeit a very important one, of the agencies of the community that contribute to the education of boys and girls. A set of purposes serves to clarify the school's unique function.

3. *To guide the formulation of pupil purposes.* Purpose is basic to efficient learning; hence it is necessary that pupils have purposes as they engage in the learning experiences provided by the school. If the school has a clearly defined set of goals, classroom and extraclass activities of all sorts become more significant and meaningful as teachers and pupils develop experiences in terms of these goals. In such a situation pupils may better understand how each phase of the school's program contributes to the achievement of over-all goals.

4. *To provide a basis for evaluating the program of the school and pupil growth and development.* Evaluation is, of course, an essential aspect of educational planning. To determine how effective the program is and the extent to which pupils are achieving proper goals, we must define goals first. Thus the purposes of the school become the criteria for judging the worth-whileness of the program.

The school needs a set of broad, basic goals that constitute the basis for all planning; each teacher needs to formulate objectives for each major learning experience that he plans and directs for pupils. The school staff should do this deliberately and overtly, and not rely on a hit-and-miss, spur-of-the-moment method of defining purposes.

These, then, constitute our own views on the definition of functions and purposes for secondary education in America. Part Three will examine programs of secondary education in four other nations of the Western world to point up the uniqueness of the American high school and the relationship of the school and society in this country. The remainder of the book will stress the program of the secondary school and will develop principles to guide planning.

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———. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938.

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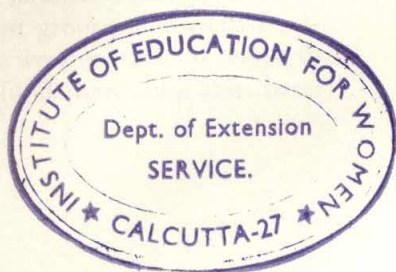
In recent years increased attention has been given to the views on education of this famous English philosopher, and this book explores in detail his concepts of the aims and purposes of education.

part three

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN FOUR OTHER NATIONS OF THE WESTERN WORLD

A brief analysis of programs of secondary education in a few of the leading nations of the world should be of interest to students of secondary education. Such a study will further define for all of us some of the unique aspects of education in this country, and will give us a greater insight into some of the accomplishments and achievements of the American people in creating a distinctly American system of education. It will also highlight some of the problems we face in developing an adequate system of secondary education for all youth.

The fortuitous circumstances of pioneer life and the foresightedness and wisdom of our forefathers as they created a new nation dedicated to the principle of the equality of man provided the basis for the development of a new kind of educational system that unquestionably has proved to be one of the most significant factors in the emergence of this country as a great power of the world. By examining some of the major elements in the educational systems of other nations, we may more truly appreciate the uniqueness of the American system of secondary education, and we may also recognize techniques that would improve educational practice in this country.



7

Secondary Education in England and France

In surveying secondary education in some of the other advanced nations of the Western world, we certainly would want to include England and France. Culturally, economically, and politically, we have long been closely related to these nations and a study of their educational program for youth should hold much interest for us.

Secondary Education in England

Until the close of World War II secondary education in England was a highly restricted program, enrolling only a small percentage of the youth of the country. With the passage of the famous Education Act of 1944 that nation launched on a program of universal, free secondary education. In the years since, it has rapidly developed a system of schools for putting into effect these ambitious plans, but it is constantly seeking to perfect the program so that it will best serve the goals sought. These developments will be briefly traced and the present program in England described.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Prior to the passage of the Education Act of 1902 there was no national system of secondary education in England. The only secondary schools were the classical grammar schools, established and operated by religious societies, national societies, and trust groups of various kinds. Most of these schools were endowed, but some were operated as nonprofit proprietary institutions. Grants from public funds were sometimes made

to them, but all charged tuition; admission was highly selective. The famous English "public" schools, such as Eton, Harrow, and Rugby, were of this type. Obviously, they enrolled only a very small proportion of the youth of the day. Dent estimates that about 800 of these schools existed in 1893, of which 218 received grants from local authorities. But not more than 3 to 6 children of every 1,000 leaving the elementary schools were admitted to these schools.¹ In addition, many of them enrolled children who had not attended the elementary schools at all, for these secondary schools offered programs that paralleled the elementary system of public education.

For the benefit of the overwhelming number of children who would not enter these "public" schools local school boards, which legally had responsibility for the establishment and operation of the public elementary school, had developed higher grade schools in a number of cities. These schools offered advanced work beyond the rudiments available in the elementary grades, particularly foreign languages, literature, mathematics, homemaking, science, and practical courses of various types. Most authorities on English education maintain that the success of these higher grade schools laid the foundations for the development of a national system of secondary education in the twentieth century. But in the meantime the officials of the privately controlled grammar schools had succeeded in obtaining court decisions that ruled the school boards did not have the authority to provide from public funds such programs of education beyond the traditional elementary program.

It should be recalled at this point that in the famous Kalamazoo decision in the United States the courts had ruled in 1874 that the establishment of public high schools was a proper function of local boards of education. Many states, however, had provided for the establishment of a system of public high schools at a much earlier date. A further contrast between American and English education is to be found in the fact that even the public elementary schools in England were not free in most cities until after 1891, and not until 1918 throughout England.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Just as a number of famous commissions in the United States, beginning with the Committee of Ten, appointed in 1892, profoundly influenced the development of secondary education in this country during the early part of the twentieth century, so also in England a series of reports by Royal Commissions and by Consultative Committees of the

¹ H. C. Dent, *Secondary Education for All* (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1949), Chap. 1.

Board of Education provided the basis for the establishment of a national system of secondary education and eventually for a program of "secondary education for all."

The Bryce Report. The first of these important groups was the Royal Commission on Secondary Education appointed in 1894, and commonly known as the Bryce Commission, since the great Lord Bryce headed it. The report of this commission, published in 1895, resulted in the passage of the Education Act of 1902, which laid the foundations for a national system of secondary education. This act made the county or borough councils the local authorities for education, and placed public elementary schools directly under their control. Also, these local education authorities were empowered to make arrangements for the establishment of county secondary or technical schools, to grant financial aid to the grammar schools operated by the societies or other private agencies, to establish colleges for the training of teachers, and to coordinate elementary and higher education. In general, the local councils were to supervise the secondary schools so that the quality of instruction would be upgraded in existing schools, and they were to make more opportunities for secondary education generally available throughout England. However, it should be noted that tuition was still charged, but there were some scholarships for children of poorer parents.

In 1900, only about 5,500 children throughout the country were attending secondary schools on scholarships, but under the provisions of the act of 1902 this number of "free places" increased to 25,269 in 1906.² Yet as recently as 1925 only 35.1 per cent of the pupils enrolled in recognized secondary schools were attending free. These pupils had to pass a qualifying examination to be admitted free, but in many cases it proved to be a competitive examination, since there were not sufficient "places" to enable all pupils who passed the examination to attend. Dent points out that in 1919 as many as 10,000 pupils who had passed the examination for free places and another 10,000 fee-paying applicants had to be rejected for lack of facilities for them in the secondary schools. England still fell far short of realizing its goal of "secondary education for all." In 1902 there were only 272 recognized secondary schools in England, enrolling 31,716 pupils. Although the number had increased to 689 schools with 81,370 pupils by 1906, in the United States in the same year there were 8,031 public and 1,529 private secondary schools, with enrollments of 741,950 and 182,499 pupils, respectively, or a total of 924,399 pupils. At that time the population of the United States was only about $2\frac{1}{3}$ times the population of England.

Moreover, the curriculum of the secondary schools in England was

² *Ibid.*, p. 43.

still based on the classical conception of education, and generally consisted of the traditional program of the grammar schools. The new Board of Education accepted the grammar schools as a model for secondary education, and all of the practical and scientific courses developed in the higher grade schools and the science and art schools in the latter part of the nineteenth century were squeezed out by the new regulations. In fact, regulations adopted in 1904 specified that the principal subjects of the secondary schools should be English language and literature, together with geography and history; at least one language other than English; mathematics and science, both theoretical and practical; and drawing. Girls were to receive some instruction in housewifery, and both girls and boys were to have some manual work and physical exercise. But technical and vocational education were completely eliminated in these subsidized schools, even though the original Bryce Report had strongly favored the inclusion of technical education in the program of the secondary schools.

Further control of the curriculum was exercised through the system of examinations conducted by the Board of Education. Two examinations were given: the First School Examination (the school certificate) which the student took before he was sixteen, and the Second School Examination (the higher school certificate) which he took at about eighteen. The famous Spens Report of 1939 stated emphatically that the School Certificate Examination "checked effectively any tendency to develop special courses in the main portions of secondary schools for pupils below the age of 16." The pattern of the English grammar school, as typified by the renowned "public" schools of the day, still dominated all secondary education and cast it in the classical mold. In spite of this pattern of secondary education set by the recognized schools, some local education authorities on their own initiative provided a more practical education for pupils who did not enter the secondary schools. This was done by establishing a central school for older elementary school children, in which they were given a "practical" education that would aid them in obtaining jobs after leaving school. Also, junior technical schools were being established to provide vocational training for older children, often on a part-time basis.

The Hadow Report. The second of the famous reports on secondary education was the Hadow Report, named for the chairman of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education. This report, made in 1926, is entitled *The Education of the Adolescent*. It provided the basis from which the present system of English secondary education has evolved. In brief, it recommended that all children should have some form of secondary education, to begin about the age of eleven, that education be compulsory to age fifteen, and that secondary education be

more definitely adapted to the needs of the pupils by providing two types of secondary schools: the traditional grammar school, which pupils would attend until age sixteen; and the modern school, which would be compulsory until at least the age of fifteen, and have a three- or four-year program. In addition, senior classes were to be offered in certain elementary schools, for pupils over age eleven for whom provisions could not be made in either the grammar or the modern schools.

The committee, however, did not recognize junior technical and trade schools as a part of secondary education; hence the proposed new modern secondary school was still to offer a general curriculum, although of a more practical nature than was offered in the grammar schools, and instruction was to be adapted to the needs, interests, outlook, and ability of the pupils. During the last two years of the program more attention could be given to handwork and similar activities. Primary emphasis, however, was still to be on molding character and training intellect, and the school was not to provide vocational education as such. That function was still to be served by the junior technical schools, which were not recognized as a part of the system of secondary education, although the committee did recommend that some pupils should be transferred to these schools at "thirteen plus."

Many of the changes envisioned in the Hadow Report were not enacted into law or carried out at that time, although it, too, represented a milestone along the road toward "secondary education for all" in England. The world-wide depression stopped efforts to build new buildings, and it was not until 1936 that a law was passed raising the compulsory school attendance age to fifteen. The law was to take effect on September 1, 1939, the day Hitler invaded Poland, and with the onset of the war and the evacuation of British school children, the law was suspended. However, some local authorities did operate schools of the modern type. In such instances examinations were used as a basis for determining which pupils would be eligible to go to the grammar schools, and which to the technical schools; the others were to go to the modern school.³

The Spens Report. In the evolution of the present system of secondary education in England, the Spens Report, published in 1939, is the third study that played a significant part in bringing about the passage of the famous Education Act of 1944. This report, named for the chairman, was also made by the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education. This report dealt principally with the grammar schools and the technical schools, but obviously it could not ignore the secondary modern school, since it had been proposed by the Hadow Report, and was already developing in some English towns out of the central

³S. J. Curtis, *History of Education in Great Britain* (London: University Tutorial Press Ltd., 1948), pp. 349-350.

schools established as a part of the elementary program. Thus the Spens Report recommended three types of secondary schooling—grammar, technical, and modern. Since this report lead directly to the publication in 1943 of the government's White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction*, which embodied a new plan for secondary education in England that was to be enacted into law in 1944, we will turn directly to a consideration of that law.

THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1944

The bill that put into effect these basic reforms of secondary education was signed into law on August 4, 1944, during a devastating world war. The principal provisions of the law are as follows:

1. The old Board of Education was raised to a Ministry and its head to a Minister of Education, with full cabinet status.
2. The Consultative Committee was replaced by two Central Advisory Councils whose responsibilities are to advise the minister on matters of policy and practice.
3. The number of Local Education Authorities was reduced to 146 for all of England and Wales. These school authorities are the county and borough councils of the area.
4. A complete system of public education was established. It consists of "three progressive stages" of schooling:
 - a. *Primary education*, suitable to the requirements of all children up to age twelve
 - b. *Secondary education*, suitable to the requirements of all persons between the ages of twelve and nineteen. Later modifications permitted exceptionally able pupils to enter secondary schools as early as ten and a half years, but for most children the transfer to secondary schools occurs at what is known as "eleven plus."
 - c. *Further education*, which is full-time or part-time education for all persons over the compulsory school age and leisure-time education "for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose." Part-time education is required of anyone over the compulsory school age of fifteen but not yet eighteen years of age unless, of course, he is attending college. Compulsory part-time education is provided in county colleges, and attendance is required for one whole day or two half days for forty-four weeks of the year or one continuous eight-weeks' period or two continuous periods of four weeks each. Full-time vocational education may be provided in special schools set up for this purpose by the authorities.
5. Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of five and fifteen, and this is to be raised to sixteen as soon as practicable. Thus all children will normally receive seven years of primary education (ages

5 to 11+); at least three years of secondary education (ages 11+ to 15) and later four years (age 16), but he is entitled to seven years of secondary school (to age 19) if he elects to remain that long. If he does not stay in the full-time secondary schools until age eighteen he must attend a part-time county college until he reaches that age.

6. All education provided in the primary and secondary schools and county colleges that are maintained by public authorities is free. This includes books, stationery, and other necessary equipment, including special clothing for physical education. Fees may be charged at the special full-time vocational schools, but no pupil is barred because of inability to pay.

7. Local Education Authorities are empowered to defray expenses necessary to enable pupils to take part in any school activity, to grant scholarships to pupils over school age, and to pay in whole or in part fees and expenses of children attending schools at which fees are payable. All pupils in the public schools at all three levels receive free, periodical medical inspection and medical treatment, and all are entitled to free daily service of milk and a midday meal. Clothing may also be provided children of necessitous parents. Local authorities are also empowered to maintain boarding accommodations for pupils in secondary schools and country colleges for whom such facilities are deemed desirable.

8. Special schools for handicapped children are provided.

9. The Local Education Authorities are required to see that adequate facilities for recreation and social and physical training are provided. They may cooperate with other agencies in the maintenance of such facilities. Thus the voluntary youth-serving agencies and the official Service of Youth may be financially aided as a part of a total program of education.

10. Generous provisions are made for state scholarships to enable any able pupil to attend a university, technical school, or other type of higher institution.

Thus we see that, in one bold step, England has finally established a complete system of universal, free education for all children from five to nineteen years of age, with some form of education being compulsory until age eighteen. This is, obviously, the greatest step forward ever taken in English education. It should be noted that private schools—or voluntary schools, as they are now called—are permitted to operate; in fact, most of them receive government subsidies. But they are subject to greater control and supervision than before so that all children are ensured a good education. A few of the famous old “public schools” continue to operate without the subsidies, but they, too, are subject to considerable governmental supervision.

DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS UNDER
THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1944

The war was still on when the law was passed, and it was realized that its provisions could not be implemented for some time. Facilities were lacking, there was a serious shortage of teachers, and it would take time to formulate and carry into effect plans for creating the schools needed to provide "secondary education for all." Each local education authority was required to submit a plan of development to the Ministry of Education by April 1, 1946, but this time had to be extended for some local units. Moreover, the effective date of the new compulsory age law had to be deferred from April 1, 1945, for two years.

The structure of the educational program. The act requires the local education authorities to provide "sufficient" schools for all pupils. Moreover, the term is defined to mean that schools must be "sufficient in number, character, and equipment to afford for all pupils opportunities for education offering such variety of instruction and training as may be desirable in view of their different ages, abilities, and aptitudes, and of the different periods for which they may be expected to remain at school."

The development of appropriate secondary educational programs to serve the varied needs and interests of all youth has been a perplexing problem in England since 1944. Much experimentation is under way and debate is extensive. The pattern is not yet definitely settled, as, indeed, it may never be in England or in any other country. In analyzing the present program of secondary education, we should recall its roots. The grammar school, which has always been a secondary school, and truly regarded as one by all Englishmen, has been in existence ever since the Renaissance period. That it should continue to be regarded as the epitome of secondary education is understandable.

We have noted that the Hadow Report (1926) recommended a second type of secondary school, the modern school, which would provide a general education, but with more emphasis on practical instruction. This school evolved from the central elementary schools or senior departments of elementary schools that had been established by many local authorities to provide a broader program for pupils at the upper elementary level, and who did not enter the highly selective grammar school. But in the meantime many local education authorities had established or assisted financially in the operation of junior technical schools and other types of vocational schools. The Spens Report (1939) brought all of these branches together in a proposal that England maintain three types of secondary schools—the grammar school, the technical

school, and the modern school. This approach was sanctioned by the government and advocated in the White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction* (1943).

The Education Act of 1944 did not legislate the type or types of secondary schools to be provided, but simply stated that secondary schools must be established which would provide a "sufficient" education for all youth. But in a series of educational pamphlets it issued on the new program of secondary education, the Ministry of Education recommended the establishment of the three types of secondary schools. Nevertheless, local education authorities were encouraged to experiment with various types of organizations, so that England is presently attempting to define more clearly just what pattern or patterns of organization are best designed to provide secondary education for all. Indeed, that is just what we, too, are still trying to do in the United States, for, as Chapter 3 noted, we are in the midst of considerable discussion about the program of secondary education in this country.

Regardless of the kind of school organization established by the county or borough councils, pupils are assigned to the three types of programs through a selective procedure. Most authorities rely heavily on intelligence tests and tests in English and arithmetic, but many use additional data, especially for pupils on the border line. The tests are open to children between the ages of eleven and twelve, but in some cases children between ten and a half and eleven years may take the tests. Children in the voluntary, or private, schools often take the tests, too, to ensure a place in a public school if they should want it. Some authorities also provide opportunities for a few children to transfer to another type of school at about age thirteen, but this is not common. The tests are administered by representatives of the local education authorities, not by the various schools themselves.

These two characteristics—three types of programs, and selective admission procedures for two of them—represent the major differences today in the structural pattern of secondary education between this country and England. The essential characteristics of each type of school will be discussed briefly. In a discussion of types of secondary schools in England it should be kept in mind that practically all schools are segregated as to sex. Very little coeducation exists, and that in only some of the smaller modern schools. Thus, for each type of school listed, there are separate schools for boys and for girls.

The grammar school. This type of secondary school offers a six- or seven-year program, primarily of the college preparatory type. It is the present-day version of the classical humanistic school that is primarily interested in a general education, and shuns any form of vocational or practical training. Admission to the school is still highly selective, al-

though the "places" in all public and grant-aided private schools are free and at least 50 per cent of the places in the direct-grant schools must be reserved for free use by pupils from the public primary schools. Table 21 (page 250) shows that about one third of all secondary school pupils in England in 1957 attended the grammar school, both public and voluntary. Also, this type of school comprises one third of all English secondary schools. The competition for places is exceedingly keen and many pupils are under great pressure from their parents to win admission. Evidence is available that many primary schools drill the pupils extensively for the examination and many parents hire special tutors for this purpose or tutor their children themselves.⁴ These efforts to gain admission are understandable, since the grammar school has a long tradition and has great prestige. It is the avenue for admission to the university, and its graduates are given much greater preference in obtaining good positions in the government, the church, the armed services, the professions, and the "black-coated" occupations.

The subjects taught in the grammar school are normally chosen from these groups:

English subjects: English, history, geography

Languages: French, German, Spanish, Latin, Greek

Mathematics: arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, calculus

Science: chemistry, physics, biology

Other subjects: art, music, economics, civics, current affairs, handicraft, domestic science

Religious instruction is also given in most schools for one period a week, and physical education is also taught.

At the end of his fifth or possibly his sixth year in the school (minimum age of sixteen), the pupil may take examinations for the General Certificate of Education. These examinations are given by examining boards throughout England. The boards are controlled by the universities. There are three levels of the certificate: the ordinary level, which is usually taken by pupils who will leave the school prior to entering the sixth form, or following their sixteenth birthday; the advanced level, which is usually taken after two more years are spent in the sixth form, in which the pupil specializes in his chosen field; and the scholarship level, which is taken by pupils seeking state scholarships to the university. The certificate shows the subjects which the pupil passed and at what level; hence it is not a diploma in the sense of showing completion of a prescribed program.

In the sixth form, which is a two-year program intended for pupils

⁴ H. C. Dent, *Growth in English Education, 1946-1952* (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1954), pp. 70-75.

or twelve years, just as in the grammar schools, but until more facilities are available and the program is altered, most students will not be admitted until a year or two later. Competitive examinations are the basis of admission, regardless of the age of the applicant. There were only 295 technical schools of secondary level; only about 4 per cent of the pupils were enrolled in these schools in 1957.

As their name indicates, they prepare boys and girls to enter the skilled trades and other occupations requiring a technical training. Programs for the training of engineers, plumbers, bricklayers, carpenters, decorators, secretaries and other office workers, agriculturists, electricians, mechanics, and bootmakers as well as other courses in the applied arts and sciences are offered in these schools. However, general education is also stressed, and the work of the first two years, if entrance is at eleven plus, is largely academic in nature. Even the third year has little direct vocational training, and it is only in the fourth and fifth years that specific technical training is provided. Since the trades in England have a five-year apprenticeship program which must be finished by age twenty-one, many of the pupils leave at about age sixteen to enter apprenticeships. Such pupils must continue their education on a part-time basis in the county college or in some other technical school.

Those pupils in the technical schools who wish to enter the university or a full-time technical college, or prepare for an advanced level of work in a technical occupation, may continue in the school and study more academic subjects and advanced courses in mathematics, science, and the like. Some may transfer to a grammar school to prepare for university. In due time some of the better technical schools may add a sixth form so that pupils may prepare for the university in the secondary technical school. Also, some of the pupils take the examinations for the General Certificate of Education. As their number increases the technical school is developing a type of grammar school program especially for pupils who enter at age eleven plus and have just missed getting into the grammar school itself.

In time, it seems quite apparent, England will develop an even more extensive and comprehensive program of technical education, the number and kinds of technical schools will be greatly expanded, and their programs will become more comprehensive, offering opportunities for advanced study.

The secondary modern school. This school evolved from the central elementary schools, higher classes, and other arrangements for more advanced education for children not entering the grammar school. The Hadow Report gave great impetus to the development of this type of secondary school. When the compulsory attendance age was raised to fifteen, this school emerged as the principal secondary school in England

in terms of numbers enrolled. By the very nature of the selective process in English education, it is obvious that this type of school in general enrolls those less able intellectually. Of necessity in a program of universal education, it must provide for pupils who range down to the lower levels in intelligence, and who would not, therefore, be admitted to the grammar or technical schools. The modern type of school, all public, enrolls about three fifths of all secondary pupils. But Table 21 shows that most pupils leave at the end of the compulsory attendance period.

The Ministry of Education gives this type of school a much freer hand to develop its program. The school may develop its own syllabuses and time schedule, and because it does not give the examinations for the General Certificate of Education, it escapes that type of rigid control over the curriculum. But of course this gives rise to its chief problems—it is not accepted by many English people as a true secondary school, and it has little prestige. To many English parents it is a severe blow if their children are denied admission to the grammar school or even the technical school and are thus “condemned” to the secondary modern school. This segregation of pupils is one of the great problems in English secondary education. Americans might well ponder the experience of the English people when they evaluate the proposals of some present-day critics of secondary education who advocate the introduction of sharp demarcations in American secondary education based on selective admission to some programs or schools, differentiated diplomas for graduates from different schools or courses, and the development of specialized schools for the intellectually able.

The curriculum of the modern school emphasizes a general education, although some introductory vocational training is available in the later years of the program. Subjects offered are much like those in a comprehensive American high school, except for the absence of specialized college preparatory courses. The offerings include

- English subjects: history, geography, civics, current affairs, religion
- Sciences: elementary physics, elementary chemistry, elementary biology
- Arts and crafts: art, drawing, painting, design, bookbinding, needlework, scenery
- Woodwork: all types, including use of lathes
- Metalwork: includes light engineering, use of lathes, and so on
- Technical drawing: all forms and blueprints
- Commercial subjects: arithmetic, English, shorthand, typing
- Music: vocal and instrumental
- Domestic science: housecraft, cookery, hygiene, and so on
- Gardening
- French: for the better pupils
- Physical education and games

A few pupils, and the number is increasing, take the examinations for the General Certificate of Education, and some foresee that the modern school will gradually develop a grammar school course for the better pupils who cannot find places in the regular grammar schools.⁵ Many of the pupils take the elementary or intermediate examinations for some of the vocations, and this preliminary training, plus apprenticeships and further training in the part-time vocational programs of the county colleges or other technical schools, qualifies them for semiskilled or skilled trades.

Bilateral, multilateral, and comprehensive secondary schools. A bilateral or multilateral school is one that offers two or three of the types of secondary education in the same building, but as separate and distinct programs. Thus, such a secondary school may offer the technical and modern programs in the same building, but the two remain separate in organization and administration. Similarly, all three programs could be offered in the same school building. A comprehensive school is the same as that in the United States: a secondary school that offers a broad and complete program without organizing it into three separate entities.

A sharp controversy has been raging in English educational circles over the comprehensive school.⁶ The London County Council looks with much favor on the comprehensive school plan and has established some on an experimental basis.⁷ Many educators favor the comprehensive school, primarily because they feel that such a development is one major way in which the sharp cleavage between the grammar school and the other two types of schools can be reduced or eliminated. Also, many citizens believe such a step represents a more democratic approach to "secondary education for all." Thus the comprehensive school has become a focus of attention in the social upheaval which followed the war.⁸ The movement for comprehensive schools is opposed by the upper classes, generally, by teachers and headmasters associated with the traditional grammar schools, and usually by university staffs, although of course there are people on both sides of the controversy from all walks of life.

One very practical question has also entered the discussion: Can school officials reliably classify pupils at age eleven plus for admission to

⁵ George Baron, "Secondary Education in England: Some Present-Day Trends," *Teachers College Record*, 57:211-221 (January, 1956).

⁶ Gladys H. Bradley, "The Emerging Comprehensive Secondary School in England," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 222), 40:113-119 (October, 1956).

⁷ London County Council, *The Organization of Comprehensive Secondary Schools* (London: The Council, 1953).

⁸ George Z. F. Bereday, "Equality, Equal Opportunity, and Comprehensive Schools in England," *Educational Forum*, 22:133-138 (January, 1958).



England Has Established Some Comprehensive Secondary Schools. This is a class in domestic science in the Kidbrooke School for Girls, one of the first comprehensive schools built in London. (Courtesy of the British Information Service, an agency of the British government.)

the grammar school or the technical school, or even at twelve plus or thirteen plus?⁹ Many educational authorities question seriously the validity of this whole classification procedure in English education. True, some provisions for transfer are made at a later point, but only a few transfer. We in the United States would agree that the determination at as early an age as eleven or twelve of the educational track the pupil should take, thereby determining in large part the kind of economic, political, and social life he will live throughout his lifetime, is indeed difficult to make. In the light of what we know about child development and growth, few of us would want to make such a judgment. Some English authorities believe that the organization of comprehensive schools, in which a pupil could shift from one type of program to another at a later time, if that seemed desirable, would also be a boon to the primary schools, since it would reduce the pressure that now exists to prepare pupils for the qualifying examinations as well as eliminate the unwise emphasis now placed on cramming for the examination.

As we in the United States debate more intensely than ever the problem of developing a comprehensive program of secondary education fully adapted to the varying abilities, needs, interests, and developmental

⁹ National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, *The Allocation of Primary School-Leavers to Courses of Secondary Education* (London: Newnes Educational Publishing Co., Ltd., 1959).

characteristics of all boys and girls, we should watch with much interest England's experience with separate types of schools.

The "public" (private) secondary schools. Reference has already been made to the "public" schools of England, which are really private boarding schools although some are day schools only. The most famous—Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Winchester, St. Paul's, and others—were founded as early as the sixteenth century. These schools have exerted a tremendous influence on British secondary education, and even though universal secondary education is now available, they continue to flourish. Those that exist without government subsidy are designated as "efficient" schools. They do have to meet certain standards prescribed by the Ministry of Education. They correspond to the old established private academies in the United States.

In addition, a number of these private secondary schools accept direct grants from the Ministry of Education and are known as direct-grant schools. They are subject to closer supervision, and must make a certain number of places available free to pupils entering from the public primary schools.

In general, the curriculum is quite similar to that of the public or maintained grammar school. But considerable emphasis is given to religious training, since most of them have a direct church affiliation. Also, games and sports constitute an important part of the program of the school. A very high percentage of the pupils enter a college or a university.

These schools have been subjected to much criticism and attack on the grounds that they are undemocratic and snobbish and that they exert an undue influence on English secondary education. Basically, they subscribe to the philosophy that the best education for citizenship and a full adult life lies in training the mind in the classical tradition and in the development of character through religious training, student life in a boarding school atmosphere, and participation in sports and games.

The county colleges. The Education Act of 1944 required the local authorities to establish county colleges for the further education of the citizens. For many years England has had various programs of part-time technical education and leisure-time education, but this requirement was made to ensure every individual an opportunity to enroll in a part-time program free of tuition. The development of the county colleges, however, has been very slow, primarily because of the limitations of public funds, and few are actually operating. The act required all children who discontinue full-time schooling prior to age eighteen to attend school part time, and the county college is designed to fill these new requirements for such educational opportunities.

These institutions provide a great variety of courses and programs

both of a vocational and technical nature and of a general nature. As the program expands, the opportunities for further study will be greatly broadened. Enrollment in all sorts of part-time schools and institutes in England is very large. Many of these institutions are maintained or aided by the local education authorities, but workers' associations and other voluntary groups also offer courses.¹⁰

ENROLLMENT IN BRITISH SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Table 21 gives the enrollments in all types of secondary schools in England and Wales as of January, 1957. The figures show that 90 per cent of all secondary school pupils are enrolled in public schools operated by the local education authorities. These schools also receive substantial amounts of support from the national government. The voluntary schools that receive similar support from the government must make a large number of free places available to pupils. Sixty per cent of the pupils who attended such schools in 1957 paid no fees. The independent schools, which receive no government subsidy, enroll less than 7 per cent of the pupils.

POINTS OF INTEREST TO AMERICAN EDUCATORS

From our brief description of the development of British education and the present system of secondary education in England, students of secondary education in this country will be interested in the following points:

1. A single, unitary state system of education consisting of free public schools extending from the first grade through the twelfth, or from about age six to about age eighteen, had been established in the United States by the middle of the nineteenth century, but it was not until the passage of the Education Act of 1944 that England created a system of free public schools for all children that extended through the secondary school period.

2. Barriers still exist in English education at the secondary school level in that children are assigned to types of educational programs on the basis of qualifying examinations given at the close of the elementary school period. In the United States, a pupil is generally free to elect among whatever programs of secondary education are available, and the possibilities of shifting from one program to another during the period of attendance are relatively unhampered.

¹⁰ An extensive analysis of technical education beyond the secondary school is provided in P. F. R. Venables, *Technical Education* (London: G. Bell & Sons Ltd., 1956); also, see H. J. Shelley, "Education and Training for Vocation in Great Britain," *Educational Forum*, 22:349-358 (March, 1958).

TABLE 21

Number of Secondary Schools and Number of Pupils on the Registers in British Schools (England and Wales), by Types of School and Age, January, 1957

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NUMBER	NUMBER OF PUPILS BY AGE LAST BIRTHDAY										18 & OVER	TOTAL	PER CENT OF TOTAL ^b
		10 ^a	11	12	13	14	15	16	17					
I. Grant-Aided Schools														
Maintained by Local Education Authorities														
Modern ^c	3,719	1,072	264,383	429,080	378,560	348,231	29,428	4,829	539	78	1,456,200	60.0		
Grammar ^d	1,206	1,091	69,528	114,377	107,213	104,807	87,136	56,380	31,381	13,079	584,992	24.1		
Technical ^e	290	34	8,661	14,405	23,297	27,371	19,987	7,098	1,519	343	102,715	4.2		
Comprehensive	43	5	7,795	11,519	9,403	8,245	3,358	1,404	511	176	42,416	1.8		
II. Direct-Grant Schools														
Grammar	164	632	8,478	13,444	12,958	12,884	11,021	8,936	5,635	2,371	76,359	3.2		
Technical	5		7 ^f	27	90	275	315	135	18	1	868	—		
III. Other Schools Recognized as Efficient														
Secondary	248	1,330	4,230	6,956	10,604	12,693	10,782	9,402	6,145	1,976	64,118	2.6		
Primary & Secondary	414	10,491	12,224	15,836	16,239	15,434	12,065	9,399	5,413	1,930	98,941	4.1		
Total		6,211 ^g									2,426,609	100.0		

^a Although the official publication shows that some pupils enrolled in secondary schools, especially combined primary and secondary independent schools, are below age 10, only those age 10 at last birthday are included here, since it is unlikely that few pupils younger than that are really taking secondary-level work. ^b The percentage is of the total enrollments listed here. These totals are not the same as those listed in Table 2 of the official report, since pupils below age 10 have not been included, nor have some pupils enrolled in special schools. ^c Also includes pupils registered in modern stream of 94 bilateral and 3 multilateral schools. ^d Also includes pupils registered in grammar stream of 99 bilateral and 3 multilateral schools. ^e Also includes pupils registered in technical stream of 45 bilateral and 3 multilateral schools. ^f Listed as "under 12" in the report. ^g Total includes 119 bilateral and 3 multilateral schools, whose enrollments are entered under type of program. Source: Ministry of Education, *Education in 1957* (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1958), Tables 1, 4, 16, 25, and 28.

3. The secondary schools in the United States are relatively free of the control implicit in the administration of examinations by external agencies such as the state or national government, but British education is constantly subjected to the controls inherent in a complete system of school-leaving examinations, even in the technical courses.

4. Under our federal system the national government has no control over education in the states unless they accept federal subsidies for specific purposes or infringe the federal rights of citizens, whereas the Ministry of Education in England exercises a great deal of control over local education authorities.

5. Just as the English people closely examine our experience in developing secondary education for all, so shall we be greatly interested in analyzing their experience with three different types of schools, each geared to different types of pupils, and their experiments in establishing comprehensive high schools as an alternative plan.

6. The development of compulsory part-time education up to the age of eighteen for those not in full-time attendance goes beyond the scope of compulsory education in this country, except in a few states, and should be of great interest to Americans. The development of the county colleges, as they begin to emerge in England, will receive much attention from American educators.

Secondary Education in France

To understand secondary education in France, one must know at the outset that (1) France has a highly centralized system of education with most of the authority for policy making, planning, and administration vested in the Ministry of National Education, and that (2) the French have long held to the belief that the best kind of education is a general cultural program that "trains the mind" and provides the learner with a basic grounding in the traditional academic subjects, commonly designated as a classical curriculum.

ADMINISTRATIVE CENTRALIZATION OF EDUCATION

The development of a highly centralized government dates back at least to the Bourbon kings of the seventeenth century, but it was Napoleon who established the strong, centralized type of national government that in this respect remains almost unchanged to the present day. Even though the authority of the national government is about as great as that in most totalitarian states, in the sphere of education France does not abuse this authority by forcing the individual citizen to accept doctrines enunciated by the party in power or by subordinating the individual to the welfare

of the state, as conceived at the time by the group in control. The frequent turnover in the control of the government and the many political parties in existence illustrate the freedom the individual citizen possesses in governmental matters.

Although schools throughout France are rigidly controlled by the Ministry of National Education, resulting in a uniformity that would be hard for an American or even an Englishman to understand, no effort is made to use this authority to indoctrinate politically the citizen or to compel him to be totally subservient to the state, as in Russia. Rather, uniformity in the schools is for the purposes of maintaining a cultural solidarity, of developing an appreciation of the cultural heritage of the nation, and of training the minds of the young so that each individual will be competent to carry forward the great cultural achievements of France that have made it a cultural center of the Western world.

The Ministry of National Education. All educational institutions in France are under the control and supervision of the Ministry of National Education. The Minister of National Education is a cabinet member, appointed by the Premier. Under the new constitution, adopted September 28, 1958, he no longer is a member of Parliament, but cabinet members have access to the two branches and have the right to be heard when they so request.

The ministry is a complex organization, consisting of many bureaus, sections, and subcommissions. The minister nominates, for appointment by the President, the most important educational officials in France, and personally appoints many lesser ones. He executes the numerous laws on education enacted by Parliament, but he also has the authority to issue many decrees and regulations that have the force of law, unless overridden by Parliament. Thus, that body spends a great deal of time debating educational issues and policies and enacting many laws relating to education, some of rather minor importance.

The ministry prescribes the curriculum, the course of study, and the methods of instruction for all public schools in the country. It has responsibility for the preparation of all examinations; probably no country in the world has as many formal examinations prepared by central authorities as France. These examinations are very important in French life, and passage of appropriate ones is essential for entrance to many occupations or for advancement to positions of responsibility. Scholarships are under the control of the ministry. It is apparent, then, that the power of the ministry over the entire educational program of the country is very great and far reaching. Thus, the national government dominates education throughout France, with the same curriculum, courses of study, examinations, and even teaching methods prevailing throughout the entire nation. In an oversimplification of the authority of the minis-

try, many students of comparative education say that the Minister of National Education can sit in his office in Paris and tell a visitor exactly what every school pupil throughout France would be studying at that particular moment in a certain grade or a certain secondary school subject.

The minister is officially responsible for policy formulation and the issuance of decrees and regulations; however, the actual work of administering the educational system is largely carried out by a permanent secretariat composed of civil service personnel. Thus even though the tenure of the ministers has been very short since World War II, often changing with each overthrow of a Premier and his cabinet, education is carried on from year to year and from one border of the country to the other in much the same rigid pattern regardless of who heads the government. A large corps of inspectors-general visits the schools throughout the country and contributes to the rigidity of the system.

Administrative structure. For purposes of educational administration, France is divided into seventeen regions, called Academies. The regional administrator for the ministry is the rector. Under the new French constitution, he is appointed in a meeting of the Council of Ministers. The President of the Republic presides over the meetings of the Council. The rector is selected from among the professors of the university located in the regional Academy.

Subject to the Minister, the rector is responsible for all education in his region—primary, secondary, technical, and collegiate. Serving under the rector of the region are the Academy inspectors, one for each of the eighty-nine departments into which France is further subdivided for administrative purposes. An *inspecteur d'Académie* has somewhat the duties of a superintendent of schools in America, but since he is appointed by the President upon recommendation of the minister he is obligated to carry out the policies and regulations of the ministry, and possesses no authority to initiate changes or to make local adaptations of any educational significance. The smallest subdivision of government is the commune, of which there are about 38,000. But the mayor of the commune has little real authority for the operation of the schools, and although there are provisions for a communal school board, it has few functions or duties.

In spite of this high degree of centralization, freedom of thought and freedom of expression exist. Educational issues and policies are extensively discussed by the citizens in general as well as by educators themselves. At all levels of authority, advisory councils of various sorts have been established and they exert some influence on decisions made on education, and professional organizations of teachers actively advocate reforms or changes in policy. Even so, because change must still trickle

down from the top, rather than stem out of local initiative, progress is stifled.

THE CONCEPT OF GENERAL CULTURE

All French education is based on the concept that every citizen should have a good general culture (*culture générale*). Education for citizenship is envisioned as developing the individual through inculcating an understanding of the cultural heritage and cultivating the ability of the individual to think critically and logically about the problems he faces. The best preparation for a career, according to the French view, is to have a solid grounding in the liberal arts. Not only does such study of the culture provide basic knowledge that is essential; it provides intellectual training and a disciplining of the mind that will enable the individual to succeed in any calling, and it will certainly provide the best foundation for performing the duties of a citizen.

The fact that France for generations was the center of Western culture has had a profound effect on the curriculum of French schools, for France still basks in the glory of this tradition: for four hundred years or so, French education, particularly secondary education, has been concerned primarily with the perpetuation of the culture and the cultivation of the individual in cultural pursuits. The emphasis has been on the liberal arts rather than on technical or functional education, and the French middle classes have vigorously defended this concept of education. The great tradition is very strong in France, and in education especially so.

EFFORTS AT REFORM IN FRENCH EDUCATION

Even though the French are intensely interested in education and the subject is ardently debated on all sides, even by Parliament, little in the way of actual reform has been accomplished in recent decades. However, the government established as a result of the elections held under the new constitution in December, 1958, has promised early action on reform measures. It has proposed to the newly constituted National Assembly, which met in January, 1959, that the compulsory attendance age be raised to sixteen and that other changes be made in the program of secondary education to carry such provisions into effect.

Until the period of the French Revolution, education was primarily the function of the Catholic Church, with the Jesuits, a teaching order, principally in control of the program of education. During the period of the Revolution several reforms were attempted, but in the reaction after that period most of them were discarded; in fact, the re-

sistance to change by political means hardened. In the first part of the nineteenth century the classical tradition became even more firmly entrenched in the secondary school. Latin was the favored subject, and newer subjects, such as the sciences, history, geography, and modern languages, were dropped or greatly restricted in importance. Complete centralization of the schools had been brought about under Napoleon by the law of 1806, which established the power and authority of the "Imperial University"—a central administrative agency and not a university in our sense of the word. But a national system of education was slow in developing, with the Catholic Church regaining its control over education, especially at the elementary school level, after Napoleon. It was not until 1882 that education was made compulsory and free. At about the same time religious instruction was abolished in the state schools, but private church schools were permitted to operate. As an aftermath of the famous Dreyfus case, the conflict between clerical and secular forces for control over education was intensified, with the result that the state schools gained in influence and support. But the issue of secular or sectarian control still remains a major one in France.

The pressing need for reform in French education stems from three factors: the emphasis on intellectual training and the disciplining of the mind, with the corollary emphasis on memorization and docility; the persistence of the classical tradition, with a consequent neglect of technical education; and an overcrowded curriculum, growing out of the addition of new subjects, such as the sciences and social studies, to a curriculum already full with the socially prestigious classical subjects.

Attempts to reform French education in the twentieth century date from the organization of teachers formed in the trenches during World War I, called *Les Compagnons de l'Université* (Advocates of the New System of Education). This group developed proposals for many far-reaching reforms, and were successful in getting some adopted before World War II, but basic reform of the entire educational program was not accomplished. This group wanted a common primary and secondary school program for all children (*l'école unique*), with secondary schools to be open to all according to ability and aptitudes. Because of its influence, this group did succeed in getting fees in the *lycées* and *collèges* abolished in the early 1930's.

But the agitation for reform continued, and in 1936 at a congress held at Le Havre a large number of proposals for reform were adopted. Many of these recommendations, based on the program of the *Les Compagnons*, were embodied in a bill presented to the Chamber of Deputies in 1937 by Jean Zay, the Minister of National Education. Some of the reforms were adopted, but the war prevented the carrying into effect of much of the plan. Zay did succeed in introducing orientation (guidance)

classes into the first year of the secondary school, so that pupils could be aided in selecting their secondary school program.

While the provisional government was located in North Africa during the war, a commission to study the problems of education in France, known as the Algiers Commission, was created. Its report, published after Paris was liberated in 1944, led to the establishment of a new official commission that came to be known as the Langevin Commission, from the name of its chairman. The report of this commission was submitted in 1947. Much of the reform that it advocated was embodied in a bill formulated by Yven Delbos, Minister of National Education. Although the bill was not enacted in its entirety, some changes in the education program were made. Another reform bill was introduced in 1953 by the minister, André Marie. But basic reform in French education similar to the changes in English education since 1944 has not yet been undertaken. A new reform plan was presented to the National Assembly in 1957. Its features will be discussed later in this section.

THE FRENCH SYSTEM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Education in France today is compulsory between the ages of six and fourteen, but entrance to all secondary schools is by examination. Public schools are free, and no religious instruction is given in them. The earlier distinctions between the lower or elementary divisions of the academic secondary schools (*lycées* and *collèges*) have largely been eliminated and better articulation between the levels of schooling has been effected by the various reforms carried out. Although the system still lacks the unity of the American or British system of education, the vertical distinctions among schools have been reduced, and three levels of education are now recognized—elementary, secondary, and higher. Technical education is still a stepchild in France, and its status is not clearly defined.

The Lycées and Collèges. Secondary education begins at about the age of eleven or twelve, when the youngster has completed five years of elementary school, not counting any nursery or kindergarten programs. Admission to all secondary schools is based on rigid, exacting examinations, administered by the Ministry of National Education. Secondary education may extend for seven years. The program is divided into two cycles: the first is four years in length and consists principally of general education (*cycle d'orientation*); the second is for three years and is the period of specialization (*cycle de détermination*). As is customary in France, examinations are given at every step in the program. At the end of the four-year cycle the pupil is eligible to take the *brevet* examination



Lycée de Pontoise. As is illustrated by this photograph, pupils begin secondary education at a younger age than in the United States. (Courtesy of the French Cultural Services, New York.)

and at the end of the second cycle he takes the two-part examination for the *baccalauréat*.

The academic secondary institutions are of three types: the *lycée*, the *collège*, and the *collège modernes*. Historically, considerable difference existed at one time among these three academic secondary schools, but because of the pressure for reform and for the provision of more equal opportunities for all pupils, the programs of all three types are much alike today. The *lycées*, numbering 238 in 1955, are state schools, and the *collèges*, numbering 294 classical and 365 modern, are municipally established.¹¹ All are, of course, controlled and administered by the minis-

¹¹ UNESCO, *World Survey of Education* (Paris: UNESCO, 1955), p. 240.

try. Formerly, most of the modern *collèges* offered only the first, or four-year-cycle, program, but now all but a few have a complete seven-year program, and also offer the classical program traditionally available in the *lycées* and classical *collèges*.

The subjects of the first four-year cycle are French, Latin, Greek, two modern languages, civics and moral instruction, history, geography, a little mathematics and science, art, music, and gymnastics. For the first two years the course is the same for all pupils, except that those enrolled in the classical course take Latin while other pupils take a modern foreign language. In the third year, pupils in the classical course begin the study of Greek or a second foreign language. This prepares for the *brevet* examination.

In the fifth year of the secondary school, pupils embark on the second cycle, or the period of specialization. A variety of combinations of courses are available: classical—Latin, Greek, a modern language; classical-scientific; modern—two modern languages; modern with Latin; modern with Latin and one modern language; mathematics with two modern languages; mathematics with one modern language and another optional, and natural science; and technical, with two modern languages, economics, products, and stenography and typewriting optional. Every course includes history, geography, physical education, physics and drawing, with music and manual work optional. At the close of two years the examination for the first part of the *baccalauréat* is taken. The final year prepares for the second part of the *baccalauréat* and requires philosophy, mathematics, and science of all pupils. Some specialization is also possible.

The nature of the curriculum for the two major divisions of the secondary school program may best be explained by Table 22, a summary of the total number of class periods devoted to each field during the seven years of secondary schooling. The French school year consists of 37 weeks of class work. Periods devoted to minor subjects, as drawing, musical education, art, physical education, and similar activities, have not been included in the summary.

To gain admission to the university, with some minor exceptions,¹² the student must pass the *baccalauréat* and in addition take a preparatory year beyond the seven-year program of the secondary school. Thus even another hurdle to admission to the universities is established. Moreover, to gain admission to the higher professional schools, known as the *Grandes Écoles*, even a second preparatory year is necessary, or a total of fourteen years. But this would correspond to our preprofessional courses in universities and colleges.

¹² Charles Brunold, "France," *International Yearbook of Education*, 1956 (Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1956), XVIII, 158.

The complementary schools. These schools (the *Cours Complémentaires*) are attached to the elementary schools and offer only a four-year course. Often they are found in the smaller communities where none of the three types of schools discussed in the previous section exist. Their program closely parallels the modern course of the first cycle of the academic secondary schools. Even admission to these schools is by examination at the age of eleven or twelve, the same as for the other secondary schools. At the end of the course they take a terminal examina-

TABLE 22
*Class Periods Devoted to Each Major
Subject in the Two Principal Branches of the
Curriculum of the French Secondary Schools*

SUBJECT	CLASSICAL SECTION	MODERN SECTION (SCIENTIFIC)
French	851	1,110
Latin	888	
Greek	518	
Sciences (physics, chemistry, natural science) ^a	518	1,054½
Modern languages		
1st	721½	869½
2nd		296
History-geography	814	814
Mathematics	518	980½
Philosophy	333	111

^a In the field of natural science, laboratory work takes place each week. In addition, laboratory work in physics and chemistry (beginning with the 5th year) totals 45¼ hours for the Classical Section and 120¼ hours for the Modern (scientific) Section.

Source: French Cultural Services in the United States, "On the Granting of Credits for the French *Baccalauréat*," (New York: The Services, June, 1956, processed).

tion that leads to either a *brevet élémentaire* or a lower secondary certificate. Some of the graduates transfer to other secondary schools for the second cycle or take entrance examinations for the normal schools. Some of these schools have added vocational courses, which are taken in addition to the general education courses. These schools or courses are under the administration of the elementary school authorities, yet their program parallels the secondary program of other schools.

It should be noted that if a pupil is not selected for a secondary school, he remains in the elementary school for an additional three years,

or until the end of the compulsory attendance period at age fourteen. Thus, for grades 6, 7, and 8 a parallel system of education exists—a secondary program for those selected for admission and the upper elementary school for the unselected. It may well be noted here that historically the *lycée* and even the classical *collèges* often had preparatory schools on an elementary level associated with them, so that the *lycée* system represented a vertical organization of schools, thus providing a complete program of education for the elite classes. But in more recent years these preparatory schools have been brought under the control of the elementary division of the ministry and are now a part of the program of free public elementary education.

Technical schools. Technical education for French adolescents is provided in *collèges techniques* and in a variety of other technical schools. These schools accept students at about the age of fourteen, but only on the basis of a competitive examination. Most pupils enter from the elementary school, but pupils who have been admitted to an academic secondary school or a complementary school could transfer. The course for the lower levels of occupational skill may be only three years in length, but the better schools have a seven-year program, about half the time being devoted to general education. Because these schools are under the control of the division of technical education of the ministry they are administered separately from the secondary schools. Since World War II, France has also established some apprenticeship centers (*Centres d'Apprentissage*), especially designed to provide vocational training and general education for youth who had not passed the selective tests for any of the secondary institutions.

The *collèges techniques* prepare for the certificate *baccalauréat technique*, which permits the holder to enter the intermediate type of positions or to enroll in more advanced technical colleges. Lower grades of certificates are available at several levels for pupils who take the entire seven-year course or for those enrolled in more elementary technical schools. Similarly, more advanced certificates, of course based on appropriate examinations, are available for those in the advanced technical schools.

The new classes. Growing out of the various efforts at reform, the French educational ministry undertook an experiment in 1945 known as the *Classes Nouvelles*. This project was an attempt to introduce more modern methods of teaching into the first cycle of the secondary school. The program was voluntary for both teachers and pupils. It represented French efforts to adapt "progressive education" to the French secondary schools, which indeed would be an experiment. The project involved the use of activity methods, correlation of subject matter, reduction in the large number of subjects studied, and some limited aspects of student

government. The curriculum was "modernized" by the introduction of some new subjects and the placing of less emphasis on some of the classics. The experiment grew out of orientation classes, begun in 1937. At the peak of the program, over eight hundred of these new classes were included in the project, but in 1952 the minister ordered the discontinuance of the experiment and the closing of the new classes. However, each Academy was permitted to set up twelve pilot classes to carry on experimentation, with the promise that worth-while developments growing out of these classes would be extended in time to other secondary classes throughout the country (probably by decree, which would certainly be contrary to the philosophy of progressive education).

Private secondary schools. A system of private schools exists alongside the public schools. It is estimated that about forty per cent of the pupils in secondary schools attend private schools.¹³ Ever since the French Revolution, controversy over the place of the parochial school has raged in France. But the right of church and private groups to establish schools has not been abridged. In 1951, the French Parliament, after much acrimonious debate, passed a law that provided for a state subsidy to private education. But rather than subsidize the schools directly, the government made grants, on a per pupil basis, to the parents' associations of the schools.

Private schools are subject to inspection to see that instruction is not contrary to French law and that adequate provisions are made for sanitation and facilities. The state exercises no direct control over the curriculum or teaching methods, but in actual practice quite rigid controls exist, for pupils of private schools must take the same state examinations as those in the public schools if they wish to obtain official certificates of any type.

School life. Few secondary schools are coeducational, although exceptions may occur in smaller cities. The school year extends from September 15 to July 1, but long vacation periods reduce the schedule to thirty-seven weeks of instruction. Pupils attend for six hours a day, five days a week. School is held on Saturday, but not on Thursdays. Physical education and sports are not given the prominence they receive in American secondary schools, and few schools have much space for games, sports, or outdoor activities. Many of them have facilities for boarding pupils. Discipline is rigid in both the school and the dormitories. Student activities are practically nonexistent, as is student government, except for some experiments in the new classes. Student organizations are forbidden. Few classes meet five periods a week, and some meet only one or two periods, for the French pupil studies from seven to even

¹³ Éditions France Actuelle, *Education in France* (Washington, D.C.: France Actuelle, 1956), p. 2.



Lycée Marcelin-Berthelot at St. Maur-des-Fossés. Basketball seems to be a popular sport in France, too. (Courtesy of the French Cultural Services, New York.)

eleven or twelve subjects a week. So much outside or home work is necessary that the French secondary school pupil has little free time for his own recreation or personal activities. Social studies concerned with the study of current affairs, social problems, personal problems, government, and the like, are unknown in French secondary education. Government, teachers, and parents are only concerned about a pupil's intellectual development in the traditional academic areas of knowledge and not about his social, emotional, or even physical development. The goal of French secondary education is the acquisition of knowledge, memorization, preparation for examinations, drill, note taking from the teachers' lectures, and development of rational thinking. Libraries worthy of the name are almost entirely lacking; hence little reference work is done, and habits of inquiry and research are not developed. Pressure from parents to get children admitted to secondary school and then to pass the numerous examinations is enormous.

PROPOSED REFORM

A new proposal for reform of French education, formulated by René Billères, Minister of National Education, was reported out of com-

mittee in 1957 and debate on the proposal continued in the National Assembly in 1958. This proposal¹⁴ would raise the compulsory attendance period to age sixteen, but some pupils could fulfill this requirement by part-time attendance. The heart of the proposal is the establishment of a new middle school, the *école moyenne*. All children would enter this school upon completion of the five-year elementary school. It is designed to provide a bridge between elementary and secondary schools. It would offer a two-year course, and thus eliminate the overlapping that now exists between elementary and secondary schools in grades 6 and 7. One of its primary purposes is to provide a two-year period during which the pupil will test out his abilities so that the school staff, his parents, and he himself can better determine the educational track he should pursue for further schooling—the academic secondary school program of five years, the vocational or technical school with a three-year program, or a three-year general course, followed by part-time vocational training, to be offered in terminal schools, to complete the period of compulsory schooling. But no selective examinations would be given before age thirteen, and then the examination is to constitute only one part of the record used in determining the type of school he would be eligible to enter. Public education would be free to all pupils.

ENROLLMENT IN FRENCH SCHOOLS

The selective nature of secondary and higher education in France is illustrated by Table 23. Enrollment in regular secondary schools is less than 15 per cent of enrollment in the elementary school, even though the period of attendance is actually longer. Moreover, enrollment in higher institutions is somewhat under 20 per cent of that in the secondary school. In contrast, the United States, with about four times the population of France, has about eight times as many enrolled in regular secondary schools, although vocational education is a part of our regular secondary school program. We have more than fifteen times as many students enrolled in higher institutions.

POINTS OF INTEREST TO AMERICAN EDUCATORS

In analyzing the development of secondary education in France, we find the following points to be of significance to educators in this country:

1. The highly centralized system of education has very effectively stifled experimentation and change. The French teacher, the person who

¹⁴ Brunold, *loc. cit.*, pp. 158-160.

Thomas Molnar, "The Reform of Education in France," *Journal of General Education*, 10:236-243 (October, 1957).

"The French Educational Reform," *Education in France* (New York: French Cultural Services, No. 1, October-December, 1957), pp. 7-13.

works with the pupils themselves, is so hemmed in with regulations and prescriptions and so held in line by inspectors that even minor modifications in teaching methods or the curriculum are practically unknown. Political control of the educational program through the centralized organization is, of course, apparent. Decisions at the national level are made by cabinet members and must fit into party policy, so that many of the recent proposals for change in French education are heatedly

TABLE 23
*Enrollment in French Educational
Institutions, 1955-1956*

TYPE OF SCHOOL	SCHOOLS		ENROLLMENT		TOTAL
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	
Elementary	76,900	10,811	5,511,549	1,048,303	6,559,852
Secondary	878	1,778	560,520	396,889	957,409
Vocational	2,300	NA	320,000	425,000	745,000
Agricultural	NA	NA	110,649	66,179	176,828
Higher	17 ^a	8	173,989	7,129	181,118
Art ^b	NA	NA	4,738	NA	4,738

NA: Not available.

^a In addition, a number of *Grandes Écoles*, state professional schools.

^b Includes only most important public art schools.

Source: *Education in France* (New York: French Cultural Services, No. 1, October-December, 1957), p. 11.

debated as party rather than educational issues. French individualism and insistence on freedom of thought has saved the schools from becoming tools of political parties for indoctrination; nevertheless, proposals for reform are decided on a party basis.

The fundamental difficulty of reforming education and of maintaining a dynamic quality in educational practice under a highly centralized control is apparent in the French situation. In America we look for educational leadership primarily among our outstanding educators: school superintendents, principals, curriculum directors, supervisors, teachers, and board members; professors of education in our colleges and universities; state and national professional organizations of all sorts; and the lay public itself. Thus we benefit from a rich and varied experience in formulating educational policies and programs. But in France, everything stems from the Ministry of National Education and one must await official decrees to know what is proper practice and policy. Although advisory councils of various sorts give a few people an op-

portunity to affect practice, such councils are themselves powerless to act, and must depend on official approval.

If we are to learn from the example of France's rigidity, recent trends in greater centralization of authority in state departments of education in the United States might well be vigorously opposed lest freedom of action at the local level be jeopardized in our schools.

2. French secondary education exemplifies the age-old conflict between classical, humanistic education and functional education, and between emphasis on intellectual development solely and concern for the development of the whole child, or intellectual, social, emotional, and physical development. This controversy is present in all countries, but is being particularly renewed in the United States, as was noted in Chapter 3. The French program emphasizes the intellectual development of the pupil through a rigorous study of the classical disciplines, such as Latin, Greek, and literature. Even mathematics and science, particularly applied science, is depreciated in French educational circles, and vocational and practical subjects, such as home economics, industrial arts, music, typing, art, trade courses, agriculture, and the like, have little or no place in the regular secondary schools. Some technical education is provided for those not admitted to the academic schools, but even the technical schools place greater emphasis on academic subjects than do American secondary school programs of vocational education.

The French provide little real direct education for citizenship and for effective living in the day-by-day responsibilities of people. For the development of good citizens, they rely almost solely on intellectual training, believing that if the person is taught to think logically and precisely, is given a cultural background, and is provided with a fund of knowledge, he will be adequately equipped to carry out his responsibilities as a citizen, a member of a family, and a productive member of society.

3. The French system has failed generally to develop leaders in the field of education. Extreme centralization is not conducive to the emergence of leadership at the local level; hence few French administrative officials have much opportunity to assume leadership in the field of education. And the French secondary school teacher, so engrossed in the classical tradition and so willing to defend it against all attackers, prides himself on his independence. The administrative official of the local *lycée* or *collège* has little actual control over his staff; in any case, there is little freedom of action and cooperative efforts of the faculty to improve the program of the school are almost unknown. Supervision is routine inspection by ministry officials, not a cooperative in-service effort to improve the program of the school. Consequently, the vigor and vitality present in American education are missing.

For Further Study

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A member of staff of the Institute of Education of the University of London describes education in England.

Bereday, George Z. F., and Joseph A. Lauwerys, eds. *Education and Philosophy*. Yearbook of Education 1957. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1957.

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———. *The Secondary School Curriculum*. Yearbook of Education 1958. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1958.

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Brown, Godfrey N. "The English Sixth Form," *Educational Forum*, 21:219-222 (January, 1957).

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Cole, G. D. H. "General Education and Vocational Training in Great Britain," *International Labour Review*, 72:164-186 (August-September, 1955).

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Conant, James B. "An American Looks at European Education," in Francis S. Chase and Harold A. Anderson, eds., *The High School in a New Era*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Our former ambassador to the Federal Republic of Germany, and himself a famous university president, analyzes education in Western Europe.

Cramer, John Francis, and George Stephenson Browne. *Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956.

This textbook on comparative education gives excellent descriptions of the educational systems of most of the nations of the world.

Curtis, S. J. *History of Education in Great Britain*. 2d ed. London: University Tutorial Press Ltd., 1950.

A historical account of the development of education in Great Britain, with an excellent chapter on recent events.

Dent, H. C. *The Education Act, 1944*. (6th ed.). London: University of London Press, 1957.

A section-by-section analysis of the Education Act of 1944, with additional acts and regulations affecting the law passed since that time. An invaluable reference on English education.

———. *Growth in English Education, 1946-1952*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1954.

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———. *Secondary Education for All*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1949.

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Gideonse, Harry D. "European Education and American Self-Evaluation," *Educational Record*, 39:213-221 (July, 1958).

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Greenough, A., and F. A. Crofts. *Theory and Practice in the New Secondary School*. London: University of London Press Ltd., 1949.

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Kandel, I. L. *The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955.

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King, Edmund J. *Other Schools and Ours*. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1958.

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Lauwerys, J. A., and N. Hans. *The Year Book of Education: 1952*. London: Evans Brothers Ltd., 1952.

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London County Council. *Education in London: 1945-1954*. London: The Council, 1954.

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———. *The Organization of Comprehensive Secondary Schools*. London: The Council, 1953.

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Lowndes, G. A. N. *The British Educational System*. London: Hutchison's University Library, 1955.

A rather complete analysis of the British system of education, with some statistics on attendance.

Miles, Donald W. *Recent Reforms in French Secondary Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

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Molnar, Thomas. "The Reforms of Education in France," *Journal of General Education*, 10:236-243 (October, 1957).

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Ogilvie, Vivian. *The English Public School*. London: B. T. Batsford Ltd., 1957.

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Reller, Theodore L. "Success and Failure of the Reform of French Secondary Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 42:329-342 (October, 1956).

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This handbook of educational organization and statistics is invaluable for the student of comparative education. Succinct descriptions of the educational program of each nation are accompanied by charts that illustrate clearly the organization of education.

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A brief description of the various types of secondary schools in England today.

8

Secondary Education in West Germany and Russia

Chapter 7 not only gave us an insight into secondary education in England and France, but discussed some of the problems facing educators and citizens in those nations. We now turn our attention to two other nations.

Secondary Education in West Germany

A third Western country in which we Americans are much interested is Germany. The following brief analysis of secondary education in that war-torn country will describe secondary education as it has developed since World War II, making reference to the system of education prevalent in prior decades, for we are primarily interested in seeing to what extent Germany may be reforming its program. The discussion will be limited to education in the German Federal Republic.

THE STRUCTURE OF GERMAN EDUCATION

Except for the period of Nazi control, education in Germany has been and is today the responsibility of the various states (*Länder*). There is no Ministry of Education in the national government at Bonn. Each state has a ministry of education, headed by the minister, who is a member of the cabinet of the state government, and hence a member of the party or coalition in power at the time. Educational policy is thus determined politically and becomes an issue between parties. The ministers of the several states have established a voluntary Standing Committee of the Ministers of Education of the German Federal Republic as a means of

exchanging information and discussing common problems, but education remains solely the function of the individual states, just as it is in the United States. Hitler had brought all German education under his control through a national minister of education, but that structure fell in the defeat of Germany.

With the abolishment of all German civil agencies by the Allies as a part of the occupation of Germany, beginning in 1945, the school system, as well as all other agencies of government, had to be reconstructed. In the absence of specific provisions on a matter of civil administration, the usual procedure was to reinstate the system in effect before Hitler's rise to power in 1933. And this was true in the field of education, so that the school structure established soon after the war was quite similar to the educational program in effect during the Weimar Republic (1919-1933). Only slowly and gradually have basic changes been made in the educational program of Germany under the Occupation and later under the Federal Republic.

As civil control was gradually restored to the Germans, each *Land* enacted laws that established the present school system. The two city-states of Bremen and Hamburg and the city of West Berlin have made the greatest strides in reforming the educational structure, but all states have made some important changes in the educational pattern of old Germany.

Historically, Germany has had a dual educational program, one program for the masses and another program, paralleling it at some levels, for the elite, just as was true in England, and is still true in France and some other European countries. Admission to secondary schools was by examination, and tuition was charged in all schools, public as well as private. It is reliably estimated that less than 15 per cent of the children entered secondary school, and that as few as 4 or 5 per cent completed the eight- or nine-year program.

Parallel with reform movements in other European countries, efforts have been made ever since the days of the Weimar Republic to establish a single unified school for all pupils, at least through the period of compulsory education. This reform movement is known as the *Einheitsschulen* plan. Such proposals have been vigorously debated in German educational and political circles for several decades, but little progress in adopting the reform was made before Hitler's seizure of power. His government did make certain minor reforms in the structure, but the basic idea of a unified common school still was not accepted. Since the restoration of civil power to the *Länder* following World War II, most of the states have made some progress in establishing a more democratic common school system, as will be described. But in several of the states, particularly the conservative rural areas, such as

Bavaria, the old class system of education is still predominant. The city-states and the industrial areas have adopted some significant reforms, but in general German secondary education is still selective, highly academic in character, and rigidly controlled.

Control of education is highly centralized, and thus is similar to French education, but at the state rather than the national level. Neither country has independent local boards of education responsible for the establishment and operation of schools, such as those in the United States. The state ministry of education appoints and pays the teachers, determines the curriculum of all schools, selects the textbooks, supervises instruction, determines standards, sets examinations, and in general completely controls the educational program. Local authorities may have varying degrees of responsibility for constructing and operating school buildings and for certain other matters of general administration. But these local authorities are the regular civil agencies, and no independent boards of education exist.

The right to establish private or church schools is guaranteed by the federal constitution, but the state ministry has authority to supervise and inspect these schools to ensure that the curriculum and program measure up to state standards. Since religious instruction is mandatory in the public schools, few parochial schools exist, and in only exceptional cases may private schools be established at the primary level.

In some *Länder* the public schools themselves are confessional schools, which means that they include in the curriculum religious instruction of a particular faith, usually Lutheran or Catholic. In nonconfessional schools, religious instruction is given in both faiths, but enrollment is voluntary. In confessional schools, the teachers must be approved by church officials of the faith taught in the school.

ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the ten state school systems in the Federal Republic and West Berlin the program of education varies somewhat; hence only the general pattern will be described here, with some attention being paid to variations in effect in the several states.

The Grundschule and Volksschule. Beginning with age six all children in all the *Länder* are required to attend public elementary school, except for a few that may be granted permission to attend private school for special reasons. The first phase of the elementary school is known as the *Grundschule*. The course is four years in length in the states and six years in the two city-states of Bremen and Hamburg and in West Berlin. At the end of this period, selection for the secondary school usually occurs. Those pupils not selected for admission to secondary schools—and

the percentage gaining admission is indeed small even though admission has been liberalized in recent years—continue with the second phase of the *Volksschule*.

The upper level of the *Volksschule* is usually four years in length in the states, although a few have added a ninth year to the program. In the city-states it is a two-year program. Pupils thus complete their formal, full-time basic education in eight or possibly nine years or at about age fourteen. However, they must continue to attend a vocational school until age eighteen, but often this is only on a part-time basis, and the program may be closely geared to their work. Some may enroll in full-time vocational schools.

The secondary schools. Near the close of the fourth year of *Grundschule* in the seven *Länder*, pupils interested in attending secondary schools take their examinations for admission. These tests are very rigid and demanding, and only a small percentage of the total primary school population (estimated to be about 15 per cent) is accepted in the secondary schools. In these states, then, certain children at about the age of ten undertake the rigid, abstract curriculum of the secondary school. Secondary schools are differentiated by type, although all types are highly academic in character. The widely renowned *Gymnasium* is the classical school with a history of hundreds of years in German education. Its pupil must study Latin, Greek, one modern language, mathematics, German, science, geography, history, and music. This type of school has tremendous prestige throughout Germany, not only because of its long historical antecedents, but because generally it was the type of school attended by the great German scholars of the nineteenth century.

But demands for a more modern curriculum led to the establishment of the *Realgymnasium*, in which pupils study a second modern language instead of Greek. Somewhat more emphasis is also given to science, particularly in the science curriculum of the school. A third type of secondary school is the *Oberrealschule*. Latin is optional in this type of school, but the pupil must study two modern languages. As demands for reform in the program of secondary education continued, particularly during the period of the Weimar Republic, two additional types of secondary schools, the *Deutsche Oberschule*, or *Oberrealschule*, and the *Aufbauschule*, were established. The *Oberschule* places greater emphasis on the German language and literature, modern languages, and science. The Nazis favored this type of school, which assumed a dominant position in secondary education prior to the war, and remains the favored type in most cities today. The *Aufbauschule*, developing principally in the smaller cities, permitted pupils to enter at the end of the sixth grade or about age twelve. Its curriculum resembles that of the *Oberschule*. It is considered to be a somewhat inferior secondary school.



Neue Münsterschule, Bonn, Germany. These girls in the senior class are studying homemaking in one of the new secondary schools built since the war. (Courtesy of the German Tourist Information Office, Chicago.)

The program in each school is uniform for all pupils enrolled, except for the possibility of electing the languages or the science curriculum in some instances. Because each school is a single-purpose institution, several types of secondary schools may be found in the larger cities, often within close proximity of each other. This is in contrast to the typical comprehensive high school in the United States in which the pupil may elect his course from among a number offered by the school. The smaller towns in Germany seldom have a secondary school at all; hence those wishing to enroll in one must commute to the nearest city, often by bicycle or train. Some of the *Aufbauschulen* provide boarding facilities.

Prior to World War II, the secondary school program was a nine-year program, thus making a total of thirteen years for these selected pupils, not counting any time spent in kindergarten prior to age six. During and immediately after the war it was reduced to eight years, but some of the states have now returned to the nine-year program. The program in all of these types of school leads to the *Abitur*, the final completion examination. Successful passage of this examination enables the pupil to enter the university or to take state examinations for

numerous civil service positions; in general it opens many doors of opportunity to the recipient. However, only a small percentage, probably 25 to 30 per cent, of even the selected group that entered secondary school passes this examination, so that the proportion of German youth who complete the program of secondary education is estimated to be as low as 4 or 5 per cent.

Another type of secondary school is the intermediate school, or *Mittelschule*. Entrance to this school is by examination and usually at the fifth-grade level, also, although pupils in the city-states and in some cases in the states may enter two grades later. The course extends through the tenth grade. Although modern languages are required in this school, the curriculum includes some practical subjects and may even offer some introductory vocational courses, such as typing, handicrafts, and the like. Not many of these schools have been established.

At the conclusion of the *Mittelschule* program the pupil may take a state examination known as the *Mittlere Reife* or middle maturity examination as contrasted to the maturity examination, or *Abitur*, granted to those who complete the program of the regular secondary school. But even success in the former examination carries considerable privilege, permitting the holder to take certain civil service examinations, to enter some of the full-time technical schools, and the like. Some pupils may transfer to the regular secondary school and complete that course for the *Abitur*.

Reform movements. In the city-states of Bremen and Hamburg and in West Berlin, reforms in the program of education have been carried out. The purpose is to make the school equally open to all children according to ability. The idea of a single unified school, the *Einheitschule*, is dominant in these reforms. The first step was to extend the period of the *grundschule* to six years, so that all children will be together in a single school for at least that period of time. But even this minor reform has since been modified so that in Hamburg and West Berlin, at least, some children may elect to enter the secondary school at the beginning of the fifth grade.¹

There are three types of secondary school: the academic type or grammar school for those with high intellectual ability, for pupils are selected on the basis of examination for this branch, which has a nine-year program; a technical branch, which has a four-year program; and a practical branch, which has a three-year program. After completion of either of the latter two types of school, the individual must continue in a part-time or full-time vocational or technical school until age eighteen.

¹ UNESCO, *International Yearbook of Education* (Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1954), p. 173.

The grammar school has three branches: classical languages, modern languages, and mathematics and science. It is hoped that an art branch will be added later. Pupils in the school may transfer from one branch to another. Usually these three types of school are housed in separate buildings, as is true in England, but some efforts to develop a common, comprehensive secondary school have been made.

Some attempts at reforms have also been made in the various states of the Federal Republic, but little has actually been accomplished. The difficulty of reform is illustrated by the matter of fees. Until about 1950, tuition fees were charged in all German secondary schools. Thus, not only was the opportunity for secondary education restricted by examination, but many competent children did not even attempt to enter the school, for their parents could not afford the tuition costs of an eight- or nine-year program. The Western powers tried diligently to get the German states to abolish fees, and appropriate measures were taken in most of the *Länder*, although very reluctantly in Bavaria and some of the other reactionary centers. The city-states and Hesse led the way in this reform. But after the Occupation was terminated, some of the states restored the fee system, at least in a limited degree, so that, except for Bremen, Hamburg, West Berlin, Hesse, and Schleswig-Holstein and possibly some other limited areas, a German pupil must still pay tuition to attend a secondary school.

Technical education. Germany has developed an extensive system of vocational and technical schools. Attendance is compulsory until age eighteen, so the pupils who complete the *Volksschule* must continue in some type of vocational program. Those who enter a secondary school and drop out before age eighteen must also enroll in a vocational school. Often such pupils enter a full-time advanced technical school, but the great proportion of the children who leave at age fourteen enroll in some type of part-time trade school. If they are employed in a plant, the school may be operated in conjunction with it; thus it simply assists the youngster in fulfilling his apprenticeship. In the small villages, a few courses may be taught to comply with the law, but the program is of little real significance. However, in the cities a large number of excellent trade and technical schools of various types provide a high level of training for many skilled occupations. The trade program must include some general education, but, again, the quality varies greatly.

Traditionally, pupils in German secondary schools were segregated by sex, and opportunities for girls were more limited than those for boys. But so many schools were destroyed during the war that many of them became coeducational in an effort to make maximum use of facilities and to provide schooling for as many youth as possible. This practice continues in many cities.



A Secondary School at Kiel, Schleswig-Holstein. As in this school, a number of secondary schools in the large cities offer courses in vocational subjects. This is one of many modern, well-equipped schools in Germany. (Courtesy of the German Tourist Information Office, Chicago.)

POINTS OF SIGNIFICANCE TO AMERICAN EDUCATORS

1. The American student of education is dismayed at the highly restricted character of German secondary education. Except in the two independent city-states and West Berlin, with a large working class, even defeat in two wars has brought about little real reform in an aristocratic system of education that dates back to the days of the old empire. Most German children are still condemned to a life based on the limited, meager education provided in the *Volksschule*, followed by a trade training. Thus the educational system itself rather effectively reinforces the rigidity of German society and denies the great mass of young people in Germany any real opportunity to advance in their station in life or to realize their potentialities. It is not at all surprising to an American observer that the youth of Germany flocked to the Hitler banner in the 1930's, for he at least promised them a place in the sun and gave them roles of leadership, albeit in the Nazi party, that they would never have obtained in the old rigid social structure of prewar Germany. The German situation confirms for us the obvious fact that the essence of democ-

racy is equality of opportunity, and that the educational structure of a nation is the key to this equality.

2. The difficulties of bringing about basic educational reform and of changing the social structure of a people are well illustrated by developments in West Germany since the war. The Allies endeavored by various methods to get the Germans themselves to reform education, rather than force reform on them by edict, as was done in East Germany by the Russians. But the Germans did not want reform, effectively resisting efforts in this direction even though occupied. When outside control was removed, even the small reforms made, often more on paper than in practice, were largely abandoned. The school is indeed an instrumentality of the social group, which must change before the structure of the educational program can be changed in any basic aspects. If the Communists remain in power long enough in East Germany, through force they may be able to mold an entire new generation to their social patterns.

In America, England, and France—in fact, in every country—the structure of the educational program reflects the social concepts and value patterns of the culture; it evolves out of the social ideals, aspirations, and dynamic forces of the society. These social forces are indeed difficult to change, as the failure of the efforts to change German education illustrates.

3. The rigid, humanistic curriculum of the secondary schools of Germany has produced in each generation a select group of intellectually keen, well-disciplined people, but it has turned out a citizen who is often quite naïve in performing his civic duties. It is much the same situation as we found in France and the result is much the same—on the one hand, an intellectual elite uninterested in the affairs of state and reluctant to take a leading part in them, and on the other, a mass population trained only in the rudiments of learning and in a vocational skill, unprepared intellectually for many duties of citizenship.

Secondary Education in the Soviet Union

Americans have suddenly become intensely interested in the educational system of Russia, for we are told that the Russians are educating so many of their young people in science, engineering, and technology that they will soon outstrip the United States in the numbers of graduates in these fields. This is seen by some citizens as a serious threat to this country because of the danger that Russia will in the course of time become a more powerful nation, militarily and economically, than the United States. A brief examination of Soviet education is thus appropriate.

Because of the rigid denial of opportunities for observers from the Western world to study Russian education at firsthand and without interference, and because of the lack of confidence most Western authorities have had in the official publications and statements of the Russian officials themselves, our knowledge of education in that country had been limited. Recently, however, four authoritative books on Russian education, all by eminent scholars of modern Russia, have been published.² These writers utilized source documents now obtainable from Russia and other authentic works in preparing their analyses, and several possess extensive personal knowledge of the country and its people. Also, several American writers have recently been permitted to make extensive firsthand observations of Russian education and to consult with top Russian officials about the educational program of their country. Their reports are also helpful in gaining an understanding of education in that country.³

THE STRUCTURE OF RUSSIAN EDUCATION

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) consists of fifteen republics (since 1956), usually referred to as Union Republics. These units somewhat resemble in relative position and responsibilities the forty-nine states in the United States, although theoretically they are republics and the national government is a federal union. These republics have power to maintain armies and conduct foreign affairs; several hold seats in the United Nations. The Union Republics are further subdivided into regional, district, and area units of local governments, just as we find counties, townships, cities, and villages in the states of the United States. However, within the fifteen Union Republics

² George S. Counts, *The Challenge of Soviet Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957).

Nicholas DeWitt, *Soviet Professional Manpower* (National Science Foundation; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955).

Alexander G. Korol, *Soviet Education for Science and Technology* (Technology Press Book of Massachusetts Institute of Technology; New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957).

U.S. Office of Education, Division of International Education, *Education in the USSR* (Bulletin 1957, No. 14; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957).

³ William Benton, "The Voice of the Kremlin," *1956 Britannica Book of the Year* (Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, 1956), feature article, unpagged; and "Now the 'Cold War' of the Classrooms," *The New York Times Magazine*, April 1, 1956, pp. 15 ff.

Homer Dodge and Norton Dodge, "The Real Story of Russia" and "Russia Gains over the United States in Educating Scientists," *U. S. News & World Report*, 39:26-33, 94-104 (July 8 and September 16, 1955).

Dorothy Thompson, "The Soviet School Child," and "The Challenge of Soviet Education," *Ladies' Home Journal*, 73:11-25, 11-14 (February and May, 1956).

are certain autonomous areas, some even being classed as republics. Thus the governmental structure becomes rather complex, at least on paper.

Centralization by party control. But in the actual operation of the USSR we find that the republics are bound together very effectively and that the system of government is actually very highly centralized in operation. This is due, first, to the fact that the Communist party is in complete control of the entire apparatus of government, since it selects all candidates for office from the smallest soviet on the first rung of the governmental ladder to the top Presidium of the Supreme Soviet for all Russia, and formulates policy for these officials. Thus the party can effectively control all policy making and governmental action in the established channels of government. Secondly, the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (RSFSR) completely dominates the other fourteen republics. This is the republic that contains three fourths of all the land area of Russia and over one half of the population, including the cities of Moscow and Leningrad, and represents the pinnacle of Russian culture and political life.

Constitutionally, general or common school education is the responsibility of each of the republics. There is no central USSR ministry of education for all Russia. Theoretically, each republic is thus free to develop its own program of common school education, just as each state in this country is free to do so. Each republic has a minister of education who heads its educational system. Subordinate to the state ministry are regional, district, and local educational authorities who are charged with certain responsibilities in the establishment and operation of the schools. However, by law the ministry of education of each republic has control over the curriculum and the program of the schools, the methods of instruction, the selection of textbooks, and the like. The individual school is thus legally subject to two sets of controls, the executive committee of the soviet that establishes it and the next higher authority under the ministry of education of the republic.

Control over education. Even though the authority for education rests legally with the individual republic and it has established subordinate local authorities that have some responsibility, the system is nevertheless highly uniform and centralized. This is achieved in three ways: (1) At the national level the Council of Ministers, the supreme executive agency of the government, headed by the Premier, formulates plans, establishes policies and issues decrees that will, obviously, be carried out by all governmental agencies down the line, including the ministries of the fifteen republics. Thus the Council sets up general policies, plans goals for education in all of Russia, and when agreements are reached it issues decrees which have the effect of law for all of them. The edu-

cational programs of all fifteen republics must conform to these laws. (2) After a decree is enacted by the Council of Ministers, the largest of the republics, the RSFSR, formulates in meticulous detail the ordinances and regulations for carrying it into effect. In doing so, the Ministry of Education for the RSFSR utilizes the services of its Academy of Pedagogical Science. These laws and rules become the model for the other republics. (3) All facets of public life are unified through the action of the Communist party itself.

At the national level, the secretariat of the Central Committee of the party (not to be confused with any official agency of the government) has a section on school affairs. The Central Committee, or usually its Presidium, issues directives on education, and in Russia it would be unthinkable for even the Council of Ministers to issue a decree without its first having been approved, if not formulated in the first place, by the education section of the party. Moreover, the top officers of the Council of Ministers are also members of the Presidium of the Central Committee of the Communist party.⁴

Similarly, at the republic level and all subordinate levels of school administration, the members of the party are always keeping watch to see that their hand-picked officials carry out the will of the party. And the secret police are always around, ready to report any deviations to their head in Moscow. Thus, education throughout Russia is remarkably uniform, variations being permitted by the party only to adjust to some local situation where the people speak a different language.

Legal responsibility for all other types of education is centralized in the national government. Thus the Ministry of Higher Education is responsible for all higher education throughout Russia, including the colleges and technical schools; the Chief Directorate of Labor Reserves, a subagency of the USSR Council of Ministers, controls all lower vocational schools. The republics and even local educational authorities have some responsibilities in such matters, but final authority is vested in the Union-Republic (USSR) ministries. The Union-Republic Ministry of Culture also has important responsibilities for some aspects of education.

No private schools are permitted. A few nursery schools and adult programs are financed by trade unions, collectives, and the like, but they are completely supervised and controlled by public authorities. All instruction is secular and there is complete separation from any religious influence.

⁴ The situation may be better understood by recalling that Stalin was able to exercise complete dictatorial powers because he was both the head of the Council of Ministers (Premier) and the Secretary-General of the Central Committee of the Communist party.

DRASTIC CHANGES IN RUSSIAN EDUCATION UNDER WAY

Russian education is undergoing some fundamental changes in structure and program. Premier Nikita Khrushchev published a memorandum in the Russian newspaper *Pravda* on September 21, 1958, in which he proposed sweeping changes in the program of secondary and higher education. Since the general plans outlined in the document had already been approved by the Presidium of the Central Committee of the Communist party of the Soviet Union, the supreme policy-making group of the party for all of the Soviet Union, they were unanimously adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the national legislature, in December, 1958. Officials stated that it would take three to five years to change over to the new program. Issues, policies, and plans have been and will continue to be discussed at length by the Young Communist League, the Central Committee, and the Council of Ministers, but Premier Khrushchev stated that the Supreme Soviets of each Union Republic would have to enact the resolutions that embodied the details of the new program.

In his memorandum Khrushchev stated that "there are great shortcomings in the work of our schools and higher educational institutions which can no longer be tolerated." These deficiencies, it was stated, stem from the divorcement of the schools from life. The secondary schools trained youth only for entering college, not for taking their proper places in the life of the Russian people. He charged that "most young people who have attended school for ten years appear to be unprepared for practical life upon graduation." In earlier years most of the graduates of the secondary school entered institutions of higher learning, but in recent years the percentage that could be admitted has decreased markedly. In 1958, for example, 1,600,000 students graduated from the secondary school, but only 440,000 were admitted to colleges and universities. Khrushchev maintained that those not going on to higher institutions were not prepared to take jobs in industry or on the farms; moreover, they often have a "disdainful, wrong attitude toward physical labor."

The basic purpose of the new program of secondary and higher education, then, is to provide a much more practical education for all youth, to prepare them for places in the industrial and agricultural life of Russia, and to develop a more wholesome attitude toward and respect for physical labor. In insisting that "the system of educating our younger generation must be decidedly overhauled," Khrushchev said, "the chief task of our schools must become that of preparing our younger generation for life, for useful work, inculcating in our youth a deep respect for the principles of socialist society."

Since these reforms in education in the Soviet Union will be put into effect over a period of years, and may well be modified as the result of debate and further discussions in Party circles, we will first describe Russian education as it existed during the 1958-1959 school year, using the present tense. Then we will summarize the broad outlines of the proposed changes as they are embodied in the plan adopted by the Supreme Soviet.

THE PROGRAM OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Formal, compulsory school attendance begins at age seven. Prior to that time, the child may attend nursery and kindergarten types of schools, but these are found mostly in the larger cities, and only a small proportion of the children attend them.

Organization of the program. Russian education comparable to our common school or general education is a ten-year program, with the schools organized on a 4-3-3 plan. Figure 7 shows the organization of the complete educational program. The first four years comprise the primary or elementary school and enroll the child from age seven to eleven. The junior, or incomplete, secondary school includes grades 5 through 7, although some republics have added an extra year to permit more thorough teaching of the Russian language. The senior secondary level includes grades 8 through 10, or 8 through 11 in some republics.

The Russian plan is to offer the complete program of education in one school or building when possible, but this has not been feasible in all cities; consequently, some schools include only the first seven grades, and in rural areas and small villages the school is often only a primary school encompassing the first four grades. But instruction in a given grade is identical in content, regardless of the type of school. Pupils enrolled in a separate primary school must transfer to an incomplete or a complete secondary school for the remainder of the period of compulsory education.

The fifth five-year plan (1951-1955) set as a goal the enforcement of compulsory attendance through the tenth grade in all larger cities, and the extension of this provision to all of Russia during the sixth five-year plan (1956-1960). However, in 1956 the plan was changed to provide for ten years of education by 1960, not necessarily completion of the ten-year secondary school.⁵ Thus the dullards could be shunted into vocational schools at the end of seven years. However, as will be pointed out later, this will all be changed if the reforms are carried out as proposed by Khrushchev.

Pupil selection. A rigid, rigorous examination system is used throughout the school program, so that academic selection is stringent

⁵ Korol, *op. cit.*, pp. 3-4.

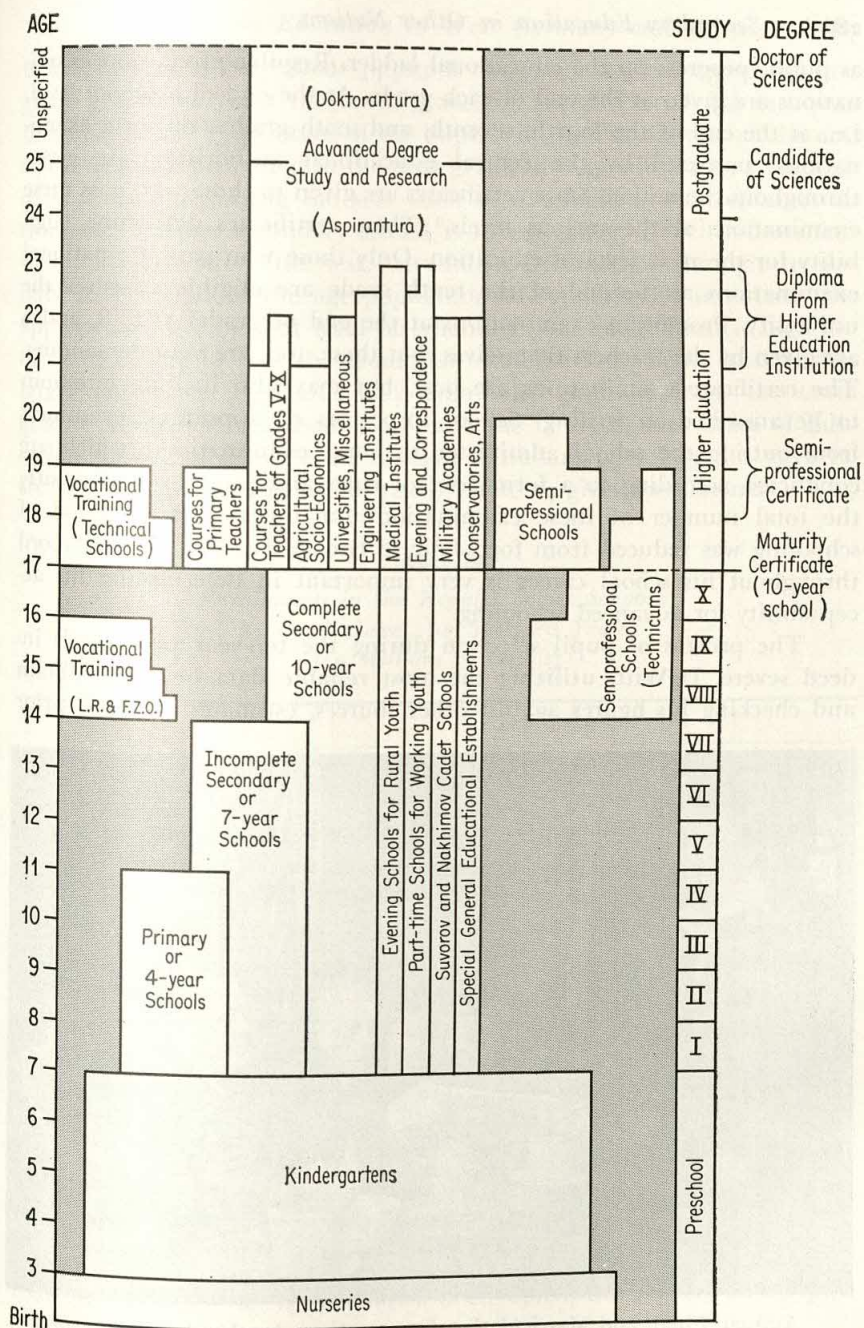


Figure 7. The Educational System of the Soviet Union Prior to the Reforms Instituted in 1959. (Source: U.S. Office of Education, Division of International Education, *Education in the USSR*.)

as pupils progress up the educational ladder. Regular promotion examinations are given at the end of each grade. At the end of a school level, i.e., at the end of the fourth, seventh, and tenth grades, uniform examinations, prepared by the central educational authorities, are given throughout the nation. State certificates are given to those who pass these examinations at the various levels.⁶ These certificates determine eligibility for the next level of education. Only those who pass the national examinations at the end of the tenth grade are eligible to enter the university. Promotion examinations at the end of grades 5, 6, 8, and 9 are given by the teachers themselves, but these, too, are very demanding. The certificate examinations are oral, but may also include questions to be answered in writing. School inspectors or appointed examiners from outside the school administer the oral examinations, which are conducted according to a formal set of rules and procedures. Recently the total number of these examinations for the ten-grade period of schooling was reduced from forty-four to twenty-six. The pupil's record throughout his school career is very important in determining his acceptability for advanced schooling.

The process of pupil selection during the ten-year program is indeed severe. DeWitt, utilizing the most reliable data he could obtain and checking his figures against other sources, estimates that just prior



Annual, Final, and Matriculation Examinations Are Held in the Secondary Schools of the Soviet Union. Shown here is Yuri Sinaisky, a tenth-grade pupil in secondary school number 315 in Moscow, handing his matriculation paper on literature to the examining commission. (Courtesy of Sovfoto, New York.)

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 78-98.

to World War II only about 45 pupils out of 1,000 who entered the first grade graduated from the tenth grade, or 4.5 per cent.⁷ He estimates that only about 75 per cent of the pupils enrolled in a grade at the end of the year are promoted to the next grade throughout grades 4 through 9. And dropout during the year itself is also high, so that elimination from the Russian secondary school is indeed large. DeWitt shows further that just before the war, enrollment in grades 8 through 10 was only 20 per cent of the age population fifteen through seventeen, the appropriate age for that level of schooling. But retardation is high because of failure to pass the promotion examinations; hence a somewhat larger percentage of youth may eventually graduate from the tenth grade.⁸ Nevertheless, as both Korol and the United States Office of Education show,⁹ enrollments in Russian secondary school grades have increased tremendously in recent years. Table 24 gives these figures.

TABLE 24
*Enrollments in the Regular Soviet Schools,
by Grade Level, for Specified Years
(In Millions of Pupils)*

GRADE AND LOCATION	ENROLLMENT				
	1927-28	1940-41	1950-51	1954-55	1955-56
Grades I-IV	9.91	21.37	19.67	12.7	13.6
Urban	2.13	5.33	6.14	5.1	5.7
Rural	7.78	16.04	13.53	7.6	7.9
Grades V-VII	1.33	10.77	12.03	11.6	9.3
Urban	0.92	3.97	4.66	4.3	3.5
Rural	0.41	6.80	7.37	7.3	5.8
Grades VIII-X	0.13	2.37	1.50	5.1	5.25
Urban	0.12	1.37	0.86	2.9	2.88
Rural	0.01	1.00	0.64	2.2 ^a	2.37
Total	11.5	34.8	33.3	29.6	28.2
Urban	3.2	10.8	11.7	12.4	12.1
Rural	8.3	24.0	21.6	17.2	16.1

^a Apparently an error occurred in publishing the figures in this category in the source. Corrected here by reference to Alexander G. Korol, *Soviet Education for Science and Technology* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957), Table 5.

Source: U.S. Office of Education, Division of International Education, *Education in the USSR* (Bulletin 1957, No. 14; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), Table 4.

⁷ DeWitt, *op. cit.*, p. 47.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 49.

⁹ Korol, *op. cit.*, pp. 22-27; U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, Tables 4 and 5.

The large increase in the number of Russian youth graduating from the secondary school has resulted in significant changes in the possibilities open to them.¹⁰ Formerly almost all of them entered the university, but university enrollments in recent years have held at about the previous level. Therefore, only a small proportion of secondary school graduates may now enter the university. The others must enter the labor force or enroll in technical schools and other specialized vocational schools. And this is the principal reason given by Khrushchev for undertaking a basic modification in the structure of general education.

In 1940, tuition fees for the upper secondary school were established in this "worker's paradise," after the schools had been free in the earlier years of Communist control. The fees were not high, and probably did not constitute much of a handicap for parents of pupils who had progressed that far in the educational program after rigid selection. In line with recent efforts to make ten years of education compulsory, however, tuition was abolished altogether, beginning with the 1956-1957 school year. All pupils wear prescribed uniforms.

The school curriculum. Table 25 shows the program of studies of the Russian secondary schools and the number of periods devoted to each subject for the six-year program. The curriculum is changed from time to time by official decree, but this is the most recent revision available, promulgated in 1955. The school is in session six days a week, thirty-three weeks a year in grades 8 through 10, with an extra week added in grades 5 through 7 for field trips. Class periods are forty-five minutes in length, with six periods comprising the school day.

The study program is arduous, with the Russian secondary school pupil studying ten to twelve subjects each year, although only one or two classes in them meet every day. It is not feasible to give descriptions of the courses here, but some insight into the nature of the offerings is provided by the United States Office of Education,¹¹ and Korol analyzes syllabuses and textbooks, gives samples of final examinations in algebra and physics, a summary of the syllabus for mathematics, grades 5 through 10, and a list of shop equipment.¹² Korol points out that some of the curriculum is planned in two cycles: one for grades 5 through 7; another, more advanced, for grades 8 through 10.¹³ There are no electives in the curriculum, although the practical arts program may differ in some respects for boys and girls, as in shop or homemaking.

Much attention has been given in the United States to the emphasis placed on science and mathematics in the Russian secondary schools.

¹⁰ Korol, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

¹¹ U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 67-83.

¹² Korol, *op. cit.*, pp. 68-75, Appendices A-E.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 53.

TABLE 25

*Curriculum and Hours of Instruction in Russian
Secondary Schools, Class Hours of 45 Minutes Each,
33 Weeks per Year, 1955-1956*

SUBJECT	HOURS PER WEEK						TOTAL HOURS AND PER CENT			
	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	V-VII		VIII-X	
							Hours	Per Cent	Hours	Per Cent
Russian language & literature	9	8	6	5.5	4	4	759	24.0	445.5	13.6
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	594	18.8	594.0	18.2
History	2	2	2	4	4	4	198	6.2	396.0	12.1
USSR constitution	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	33.0	1.0
Geography	3	2	2	2.5	3	—	231	7.3	181.5	5.6
Biology	2	2	3	2	1	—	231	7.3	99.0	3.0
Physics	—	2	3	3	4	4.5	165	5.2	379.5	11.6
Astronomy	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	33.0	1.0
Chemistry	—	—	2	2	3	3.5	66	2.1	280.5	8.6
Psychology	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	33.0	1.0
Foreign language	4	4	3	3	3	3	363	11.5	297.0	9.1
Physical culture	2	2	2	2	2	2	198	6.2	198.0	6.1
Drawing (Art)	1	1	—	—	—	—	66	2.1	—	—
Drafting (Engr.)	—	—	1	1	1	1	33	1.0	99.0	3.0
Singing	1	1	—	—	—	—	66	2.1	—	—
Manual training	2	2	2	—	—	—	198	6.2	—	—
Shopwork	—	—	—	2	2	2	—	—	198.0	6.1
Total	32	32	32	33	33	33	3,168	100.0	3,267	100.0

Sources: Reprinted with permission from Alexander G. Korol, *Soviet Education for Science and Technology* (Technology Press Book of Massachusetts Institute of Technology), copyright 1957. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Tables 9, 11; and U.S. Office of Education, Division of International Education, *Education in the USSR* (Bulletin 1957, No. 14; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), Tables 7, 8.

The program shown in Table 25 indicates that these subjects are indeed stressed. Moreover, Korol compares the 1955-1956 curriculum with the program in effect as recently as 1952-1953, and shows that there was some shift from the humanities to science, but particularly to "skill" courses in shop, manual training, and the like.¹⁴

In republics in which Russian is not the native language, instruction in the native language is added to the curriculum, so that such pupils

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 54-60.

have even a heavier load of course work. The pupils, of course, use the native language of their own republics, but they must learn Russian.

Discipline is quite severe in the Russian schools and the pupil is expected to obey orders and rules set by school authorities. In the earlier days, following the Revolution, the Russians attempted to put into practice extreme theories of what is often dubbed "progressive" education in the Western world. Much activity was introduced into the curriculum, pupils spent a great deal of time on community projects and in work on farms and the like, and a great deal of freedom was permitted. But all this was changed in 1935 and the old practices of formalism, autocratic control, rigid discipline, formal school marks, and memoriter methods of teaching were reinstated in the schools. The system of examinations now in effect almost necessitates such a method of teaching, but the school inspectors of the ministry also enforce regulations requiring a rigid method of teaching of the traditional type. In any case, strict memorization of the official textbook, especially in the humanities and social sciences, is the height of discretion.¹⁵

The Marxian theory places great emphasis on productive work and on the equality of mental and physical work. In terms of education, this led to the development in Soviet education of what is known as polytechnical education, a concept which calls for using practical work in the school program and for training the individual to do useful work. This principle is what gave rise, in the early period of the Soviet Union, to a complete reshuffling of the program of education to include community work projects and all sorts of practical work and activities. With the shift in educational theory in the 1930's, the polytechnical idea was reconstituted to provide only for the application of theoretical knowledge to practical situations. The schools made little effort to provide actual practical courses, and even laboratory work in science was not common. But within the last few years, the concept of polytechnical education has come into the forefront again, and the schools are being required to provide more practical work in connection with the theoretical courses and to make use of laboratory work in the sciences.¹⁶ Work in what we would call industrial arts has been expanded, and some work in agriculture is favored. Even the upper secondary schools, which have been more or less comparable with grammar schools, now must include practical courses in the curriculum, such as mechanics, agriculture, and the like. More graduates of these schools are being directed into production rather than into advanced education, so that Russia may increase its industrial output.¹⁷ The advocates of productive work and more

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 78-79.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 27-32.

¹⁷ An interesting account of this change in one school is given in a news item in *The New York Times* for September 2, 1956.

practical education won their point in 1958, for the general plan of reform adopted at that time recast the entire educational program so the schools will train productive workers rather than academicians.

Until 1943 all Russian schools were coeducational, except specialized military schools. As a war measure, separate schools for the sexes were established in some of the largest cities, so that the boys could be given more military training. Segregation continued in some centers until 1954, when it was abolished by decree, and coeducation, a factor in establishing equality for all citizens in Russia, is again the established policy.

OTHER TYPES OF GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Russia also maintains certain special secondary schools for general education. These include some military schools, special schools for those possessing talents currently being emphasized by the Communist party, and the new boarding schools established in 1956.¹⁸ In addition to providing about the same program of general education, these schools offer instruction designed to train youth for specific purposes.¹⁹

In endeavoring to develop an educated class of citizens as rapidly as possible, Russia has also provided extensive opportunities for adults in all types of part-time programs. Some of these programs are equivalent to the regular secondary schools, so that adults who did not complete that program may obtain the state certificates at either the seventh-grade or the tenth-grade level through study in these schools and by passing the required examinations. They then are as eligible for admission to the technicums or higher institutions as those completing the regular school program. Some of the pupils who failed the regular secondary school may also complete the course through these part-time and adult programs.

VOCATIONAL, SEMIPROFESSIONAL, AND HIGHER EDUCATION

All forms of vocational, technical, and higher education are directly administered by appropriate Union-Republic ministries, although the ministries of the various republics have responsibilities for establishing, financing, and maintaining many of these specialized schools. A great variety of these schools exist, as was shown in Figure 7, and in addition extensive programs of adult education of various types have been developed. Here only the more important systems of schools and higher institutions will be briefly described.

¹⁸ A report on Boarding School No. 12 in Moscow is given in *The New York Times* for December 9, 1956.

¹⁹ U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, Chap. V, and Korol, *op. cit.*, pp. 32-38.

Technicum. The most important type of technical school in Russia is the technicum, a technical school that prepares young people for semi-professional skilled occupations of all kinds. The entire network of technicums is under the control of the Union-Republic (USSR) Ministry of Higher Education with respect to curriculum, admission requirements, and standards. Other appropriate ministries, such as the new industrial ministries, administer and finance their respective institutions.

Admission to particular technicums is highly selective, the numbers admitted being in part based on the demands for that particular skill under the current production plans of the USSR. As a rule, entrants must have graduated from the junior secondary level of school, or the seventh grade. Those who have completed a general education through adult schools and have earned a certificate equivalent to the seven-year certificate are also eligible to apply. It will be recalled that graduation from this level of secondary school is based on passage of state examinations, but in addition those seeking admission to a technicum must pass additional examinations given by the institution. And even then only the approved quota is admitted.

Persons who continue with the senior level of secondary school are accepted, but they also must pass the specified examinations. Their period of training may be reduced accordingly. In recent years, some of



An Examination in Geography at a Secondary School in Uzhgorod, Transcarpathian Region of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic. Most of the examinations in Russian schools are oral. (Courtesy of Sovfoto, New York.)

the higher-level schools, such as dentistry, teaching, engineering, and jurisprudence, admit only those who have graduated from the full ten-year general school program. Since there are many more applicants than places to fill, and since the same is true for higher professional schools and universities, in the future, undoubtedly, many of the technicums will require graduation from the complete secondary school to enter. Even then selection will be possible. In 1955 more than 50 per cent of the students entering a technicum were graduates of the ten-year school. Also, those with vocational experience and World War II veterans were given preference.²⁰

The period of training in most of these specialized institutions is four years, but in some cases it is only two or three years. For those students who completed the tenth grade the time is usually reduced to two or two and a half years. The instructional hours a week are from forty to even fifty in engineering and technical schools, and the term is thirty to thirty-two weeks. The curriculum consists of general courses that parallel the upper grades of the regular secondary school (largely omitted for graduates of complete secondary schools); technical and specialized courses in the field of specialization; and industrial, practical, or clinical courses in the chosen field. These schools train technical workers for the middle levels of specialization in industry, transportation, and agriculture, and as obstetricians, doctors' assistants, elementary school teachers, and the like. Special technicums for training for theatrical, musical, and artistic careers are also available. Table 26 shows the fields of study included in the technicums and the distribution of graduates in 1950 and 1955 among these fields. Again, the emphasis on science and technology is apparent.

Upon completion of the course, the student takes his final state examination and submits his graduation thesis. All graduates are immediately given posts according to their type of training, although graduates in the top 5 per cent of the class may apply for admission to higher educational institutions. They do not need to spend the required three years working in their vocation before entering a higher institution. All others do, but few of them ever enter the university anyway. In actual practice, the technicum is terminal for at least 95 per cent of its students.

In recent years, part-time evening technicums have been established, so that employed workers may upgrade their vocational skills; some work may even be taken by correspondence.

Labor reserve schools. A second type of vocational institution is the skilled-labor training schools operated as a part of the state labor reserve training program. These schools were established in 1940 to train

²⁰ Korol, *op. cit.*, p. 101.

TABLE 26

*Distribution of Graduates from the Soviet Technicums
by Field of Specialization, 1950 and 1955
(In Thousands)*

FIELD OF TRAINING	1950		1955	
	NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
Geology and exploration of deposits	1.8	0.6	5.6	1.4
Development of geological deposits	6.0	1.9	13.0	3.4
Power industry	7.7	2.4	12.7	3.3
Metallurgy	4.9	1.6	4.5	1.2
Machine and instrument construction	26.6	8.5	34.9	9.0
Electrical machines and instrument construction	2.4	0.8	4.8	1.2
Radio engineering and communications	5.2	1.7	11.9	3.1
Chemical technology	4.4	1.4	7.2	1.9
Wood, pulp, and paper technology	2.4	0.8	5.1	1.3
Construction	14.6	4.6	32.4	8.3
Transportation	11.1	3.5	12.6	3.2
Consumer food products technology	4.9	1.5	5.7	1.5
Consumer goods technology	5.0	1.6	5.9	1.5
Geodesy and cartography	0.8	0.3	1.4	0.4
Hydrology and meteorology	0.6	0.2	1.1	0.3
Subtotal: Industrial fields	98.4	31.4	158.8	41.0
Agriculture	46.6	14.9	50.4	13.0
Economy (trade and services)	26.3	8.4	41.6	10.7
Legal	4.2	1.3	1.3	0.3
Health and physical culture	54.2	17.3	59.6	15.4
Education	76.7	24.4	70.2	18.1
Arts	5.0	1.6	4.2	1.1
Unspecified	2.3	0.7	1.7	0.4
Total number of graduates	313.7	100.0	387.8	100.0

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skilled workers. Young people in the fourteen to seventeen age group have been drafted for these schools, although in recent years authorities maintain that they are filled almost entirely by "volunteers." Those subject to draft for these schools include young people not in school or

employed; overage pupils in the junior secondary level, who probably are poor risks academically; and those enrolled in the junior secondary grades in rural areas. All pupils in the upper secondary school are exempt from the draft. These schools vary greatly in the level and type of training, ranging from factory schools that offer only a six-month or a year program of low level, to trade schools that have a two- or three-year training program. Few pupils continue on to further education from these schools, but those in the trade schools may seek admission to a technicum.

Yet a third type of vocational school should be noted—the schools at the bottom of the ladder for working youth and schools for rural youth. They include the FZO schools. These are schools that provide training for those not attending the regular secondary schools or who did not complete the program. General education is given, so that pupils may take the examinations equivalent to those given at the end of the seventh and tenth grades in the regular schools.

In Russia today, those who did not attend a regular secondary school or a technicum or the equivalent must obtain a maturity certificate as proof that they have completed secondary education. This may be obtained in a variety of ways, most often through attending some type or types of part-time or evening schools, through adult education programs, or through correspondence. Often it may take the individual a number of years to obtain the certificate.

Universities. Although we are primarily interested in secondary schools, the university system will be briefly explained here. Designed to prepare the top level of professional workers, higher education is provided in various types of universities or institutes. The course usually is from four to six years in length. Admission is open only to those who possess the maturity certificate (graduation from the ten-grade secondary school) and who prove acceptable on the basis of rigid, competitive examinations. Completion of a professional course depends on passing a state accrediting examination or defending a thesis before a specially appointed board, or both. Upon completion of the program of higher education, persons in the fields of teaching, academic specialties, and scientific research may gain admission to advanced professional training, similar to our graduate programs, and work for the first advanced degree (*kandidat*) or the highest (*dokter*).

PLANS FOR MODIFICATION OF THE PROGRAM

The broad outlines of the sweeping reforms advocated by Premier Khrushchev in his memorandum of September 21, 1958, and later adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on December 24, 1958, are sum-

marized briefly at this point.²¹ The details of the new program of secondary education will be developed during the ensuing period of three to five years; thus only the broad policies to be instituted will be described here.

Organization of the program. Education is to be divided into two stages. The first part of the program will be the eight-year school, which will be compulsory for all children. In this phase of secondary education

... attention must be concentrated on instruction in the fundamentals of knowledge, on polytechnical training and the teaching of work habits, and on the education in communist ethics, the physical development of the children and their "inoculation" with good aesthetic taste. But, withal, we cannot have the school children overburdened to the extent that their health would be impaired.²²

In keeping with the concept of education for useful work, girls will receive considerable instruction in homemaking.

The second stage of secondary education could take one of several directions, but usually the program would relate directly to work and thus provide vocational training. In cities the pupils might enter factory or trade schools, in which their studies are closely linked with vocational training; in rural areas the pupils would receive instruction in agricultural arts. Upon the completion of such vocational schools, the course of study being two or three years long, it is expected that pupils will be amply prepared to assume their responsibilities in the life of the nation.

Thus, all Russian youth, except possibly a few gifted pupils, will be compelled to take jobs in production. They could learn a trade directly on the job, or some pupils might continue for a year or two in a full-time vocational school. In rural areas, the eight-year school might provide an additional six-months or one-year course in agriculture. Some of the apprenticeship schools at the factories might also teach general subjects.

But continuation of the second stage of a complete secondary education is to be principally a spare-time endeavor. Evening schools and

²¹ Nikita Khrushchev, "On Strengthening the Ties of the Schools with Life and on Further Developing the Country's Public Education System," *Pravda*, September 21, 1958 (Translation supplied by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Press Release No. 506, October 1, 1958).

"School and Life," *USSR*, No. 12, 1958, pp. 20-24.

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"Law on Strengthening the Ties of School with Life and on Further Developing the Public Education System in the USSR" (Translation supplied by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Press Release No. 5, January 7, 1959).

²² Khrushchev, *op. cit.*

correspondence education will be greatly expanded, but Khrushchev warned that these schools must do much more than merely prepare youth to enter college; they must emphasize vocational and technical education as well as academic subjects, so that youth attending them have a specialized as well as a general education.

The memorandum points out that young people who seriously desire further education and wish to enter higher institutions will be able to do so. However, they will have to qualify through productive labor on a job, and then study in their spare time at an evening school or through correspondence courses. There will no longer be "free rides" for those who want to take a highly academic course in the secondary school and then continue study at the college or university for professional training. This program of education has produced a generation of young people who not only scorn physical labor, but have so little practical knowledge that they are unqualified to take jobs in industrial firms or on the collective farms.²³

An exception to the requirement of a period of productive work, with optional study in one's spare time, is granted pupils gifted in mathematics, music, and the arts. Children who show aptitude in these fields early in life will be given special opportunities to develop these talents and will "receive the kind of secondary education required for further study at the appropriate kind of higher school."

In the transitional period of development of the new program, authorities recognize that it may be necessary to retain a number of the ten-year secondary schools, so as to have a continuous supply of young people available for admission to the colleges and to educate enough persons in technical skills during the interim. The more capable pupils now in the secondary schools may be transferred to these remaining ten-year schools retained during the change-over.

Higher schools. Khrushchev was equally caustic in his criticism of higher education. He pointed out that in "capitalist" countries students in agricultural colleges are required to work on farms, but in the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, for example, "the students are not trained in the fields but primarily on tiny garden strips. Cows and other animals are studied not on the farms, as is required in life, but chiefly through models. . . . And this is called a higher Soviet school."

In the future, admission to higher institutions should be based not only on the desires of the applicant, but on the recommendations of "public organizations," such as trade unions and the Young Communist League. Thus, the person chosen "will justify the expense he incurs, that he can really be a useful director of production."

²³ "School and Life," *loc. cit.*

The first two or three years of instruction in higher institutions are to be arranged so that study may be combined with work. Evening and correspondence study will be emphasized. Beginning with the third year, the student might be freed of work three days a week for study; during the last two years of an advanced course, he might be freed of all productive work requirements, except for laboratory work essential to the course of study.

Inasmuch as there is world-wide interest in these major modifications which the Soviet Union is making in its program of universal education, the first five sections of the law passed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on December 24, 1958, are quoted here in full.

SECTION I

The Secondary School

Article 1. The chief task of the Soviet schools is to prepare their pupils for life, for socially-useful work, to further raise the level of general and polytechnical education, to train educated people who have a good knowledge of the fundamentals of science, to bring up the youth in the spirit of profound respect for the principles of socialist society, in the spirit of the ideas of communism.

Tying training close to labor, to the practice of communist construction, must become the guiding principle of training and upbringing in the secondary school.

Article 2. Universal compulsory 8-year education shall be introduced in the USSR instead of the universal compulsory 7-year education. The 8-year school is an incomplete secondary general-educational labor polytechnical school which should impart to the pupils solid fundamentals of general educational and polytechnical knowledge, should inculcate in them a love for work and a readiness for socially-useful activity, and should pursue the moral, physical and aesthetic education of the children.

Upbringing and education in the 8-year school must be based on a combination of the study of the fundamentals of science, polytechnical training and labor education on the basis of widely drawing the schoolchildren into forms of socially-useful work appropriate to their age.

Article 3. Complete secondary education of the youth beginning from the age of 15 or 16 shall be carried out on the basis of combining study with productive work, so that the entire youth of this age may join in socially-useful labor.

Article 4. The following basic types of schools giving a full secondary education shall be established:

a. Schools for young workers and the rural youth—evening secondary general-educational schools where persons who have finished the 8-year school and are working in a branch of the national economy receive a secondary education and raise their professional qualifications. The term of study at these schools shall be three years.

To provide the necessary conditions for the pupils of the evening secondary general-educational schools, the USSR Council of Ministers shall establish a shorter workday or a shorter workweek for those who study successfully in their spare time.

b. Secondary general-educational labor polytechnical schools giving production training, where persons who have finished the 8-year school in the course of three years receive a secondary education and professional training for work in a branch of the national economy or culture.

The ratio of theory to practice in productive training and the sequence of the periods of training and work shall be established, depending on the specialty and local conditions. In the rural schools the academic year should be arranged according to the seasonal character of agricultural work.

Production training and socially-useful work may be pursued at instructional and production shops in nearby enterprises, in pupil teams on collective farms and state farms, at instructional experimental farms, at school and inter-school instructional production workshops.

c. Secondary vocational and other specialized educational establishments where persons who have finished the 8-year school receive a secondary general and a secondary specialized education.

Article 5. With a view to enhancing the role of society and to helping families bring up their children, the network of boarding schools as well as of schools and groups with a prolonged day shall be expanded. The boarding schools shall be organized along the pattern of the 8-year school or the secondary general-educational labor polytechnical school giving production training.²⁴

ENROLLMENT IN USSR SCHOOLS

Enrollments in certain schools have been given previously in this section, particularly to show trends, but Table 27 shows the enrollments in all schools for the year 1955-1956. As later figures are released from time to time, they will be published by UNESCO in later editions of its study.

POINTS OF SIGNIFICANCE FOR AMERICAN EDUCATORS

As students of educational principles and practices we find the following aspects of Russian education to be of significance to us:

1. Russia amply illustrates the importance of education to the development and advancement of a nation, not only in its cultural life but in the economic and industrial fields as well. Prerevolutionary Russia was primarily a nation of illiterate peasants, held almost in subjection

²⁴ "Law on Strengthening the Ties of School with Life and on Further Developing the Public Education System in the USSR" (Translation supplied by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Press Release No. 5, January 7, 1959).

TABLE 27
Enrollment in All USSR Schools, 1955-1956

TYPE OF SCHOOL	ENROLLMENT
Preschool	1,730,941
Primary (Grades I-VII)	22,847,634
Secondary (Grades VIII-X)	
General	5,253,070
Vocational	1,960,400 ^a
Higher education	1,867,000 ^b
Special	116,553
Other	
Schools for working youth	1,387,100
Schools for rural youth	345,400
Schools for adults	120,500

^a Includes secondary teacher training and enrollments in this level of correspondence courses.

^b Includes higher teacher training and enrollments in this level of correspondence courses.

Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, *Current School Enrollment Statistics* (No. 4; Paris: UNESCO, July, 1957), pp. 46-47.

by a small elite class. The Communists recognized the necessity of educating the mass of people if Russia was to emerge as a powerful nation. Industrial development depended on the education of children and youth and the elimination of illiteracy among adults as rapidly as possible. Even though we totally disapprove of the basic purpose of this development—complete domination of the world by the Communists—we do see in Russia recognition of the essential relationship between the educational program of a nation and its advancement. Schools are inevitably an instrumentality of national policy in Russia, England, France, Germany, or the United States. The important obligation facing any nation, educationally, is to determine thoroughly and clearly what values are to be attained through the schools. Russian officials in control of the schools clearly know what policies they seek to implement; we in America should be equally clear about the basic democratic values we seek to promulgate through our schools.

2. The subservience of the school to political control is, of course, evident in Russia. Educational policy at all levels is determined basically by the Communist party, so that educational decisions are made on the basis of the program of the party. Thus decrees go out and regulations are issued that may change basic aspects of the educational program al-

most over night so that it will conform to shifts in governmental policy. Although we noted that control of the schools in France is centralized in the national ministry and that the government could legally order changes in French education which would reshuffle it each time there was a shift in national policy, just as happens in Russia through rigid party control at all levels, traditionally French national policy sets as the aim of education the development of the individual through the acquisition of the culture of the people. But in Russia, if the current five-year plan, for example, requires more middle-level engineers for its accomplishment, Russia gets them by changing its training program, its methods of "selection" at the appropriate levels, or both.

Currently, Russia is placing emphasis on the training of technicians and scientists so that production may be stepped up and aid may be given to backward countries in developing their industrial potentials. Consequently, the time spent on the humanities in the school is decreased, more science and mathematics are introduced, practical training is expanded, and more pupils are channeled into the technical schools and vocational programs of various sorts. Such changes by government edict would, of course, be impossible in any Western nation, not only because no governmental machinery for doing so exists in England, Germany, or the United States, for example, but because such an ordering of the lives of its children and youth would be contrary to national policy and would be violently opposed by the citizens generally.

3. Government officials and citizens in Russia are now wrestling with the same basic problem that every civilized nation has faced sooner or later: the determination of the basic functions and purposes of the secondary school, especially its role in the preparation of youth for higher education. Until recent years, Russia has had a serious shortage of college-trained people, particularly scientists, engineers, technicians of all kinds, and similar professional workers. She carried out a herculean expansion of her educational system, most markedly at the levels of secondary and higher education. Enrollments grew tremendously, and Russia educated large numbers of people for service in the technical and professional occupations. But now that secondary education has become generally available to most youth in Russia and a very high percentage of all youth are enrolled, officials point out that only a small per cent of the graduates of the secondary school can be admitted to the colleges and universities. Therefore, a crucial issue arises as to whether secondary school pupils should be prepared for college or prepared for life without reference to college admission.

We in this country faced that issue; we noted in Chapter 4 that our public secondary school emerged as a comprehensive high school, offering a program designed to serve the major educational needs of all youth

equally well—both those planning to enter college and those going directly into an occupation or housewifery. A unitary system of education was created, so that every youth, as he desires, is privileged to advance as far up the educational ladder as his talents enable him.

Chapters 7 and 8 show how England, France, and West Germany have resolved this issue: all restrict college admission to the graduates of an academic high school, established as a part of a differentiated program of secondary education, based on selective procedures. The sweeping changes proposed for Russian education—as embodied in Premier Khrushchev's memorandum and the theses later published by the Central Committee of the Communist party and the Council of Ministers—clearly align Russia with those nations that restrict secondary and higher education to a select group, an intellectually elite class. Secondary education will gradually become much more differentiated, with only a small percentage of youth privileged to attend the academic high school, completion of which will be the basis for admission to higher institutions. Officially the door of admission is kept open to other youth, but only after they have proved themselves through productive work, won the approval of the Party and the trade unions, and completed the full secondary school program through spare-time or part-time study.

Russian officials will probably continue to make glib explanations of how equality of opportunity exists in this self-proclaimed "people's democracy," but the American citizen, viewing with pride the unitary system of universal education in this country, will be unimpressed with such claims.

4. The national concern for education in Russia is something we may well ponder in this country. Although the subject was not explored in this brief sketch, sources other than those cited show that the Soviet government is spending a far larger proportion of its national income on education than is the United States. Education is regarded as one of the most important aspects of national life, and planning for the educational development of the people assumes as significant a part of governmental action as any other sphere of government. In the struggle for the minds of men, education is of paramount importance, and the Russians know that well.

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part four

THE CURRICULUM OF THE AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOL

In Part Four we turn attention to the status and possibilities of the secondary school program. American adolescents would learn, and some do, without attending secondary schools. But our citizens have wanted them to learn more systematically and have therefore provided secondary schools. The programs of these schools vary, but there are many similarities. In the six chapters of Part Four we shall look at both the similarities and the differences in the curriculum from school to school in order to get a comprehensive picture of the high schools as they are in the United States.

Chapter 9, which answers the question, "What Does the Secondary School Curriculum Include?" gives particular attention to the program of studies, required and elective, and comparative enrollments in the various subjects. Chapter 10 explains how high school faculties attempt to relate the curriculum and the needs of their pupils, and identifies in some detail the critical issues which must be resolved in planning the secondary school curriculum. These are the issues on which disagreements among laymen and educators have been widely publicized in the mid-twentieth century and which secondary school teachers will undoubtedly continue to debate for some years ahead.

Chapters 11 and 12 deal with the portion of the secondary school curriculum devoted to general educa-

tion, that is, to meeting the common needs of youth. Chapter 12 describes the core curriculum plan as one approach to general education. Chapter 13 is devoted to specialized educational opportunities in the high school. Chapter 14 describes certain relationships between the community and the curriculum of its secondary school(s).

9

What Does the Secondary School Curriculum Include?

Although the curriculum of each secondary school typically has a few unique features, many common elements and characteristics are to be found in the programs of American secondary schools. This is especially true with respect to the major aspect of the curriculum which we call "the program of studies," that is, the subjects taught. This chapter will describe these common characteristics, and note variations and the factors which cause them, but first, certain basic terms and concepts must be defined.

What Is the Curriculum?

Probably most teachers and pupils think of the curriculum as the subjects offered by the school, that is, the "program of studies." Others may narrow the definition to include the content of a specific subject and speak of the "English curriculum," the "science curriculum," and so forth. The "college preparatory curriculum" or the "industrial training curriculum" is another usage; what is really meant is the college preparatory (or industrial training) program of studies. Sometimes the written outline of a subject, that is, the "course of study," is also called the "curriculum." Although all these usages of the term "curriculum" may be heard, to us a more meaningful definition is that of *the program of the school*. The curriculum, as we use the term, includes all educational opportunities provided by the school. Thus, the curriculum of a school may include

Classroom activities, usually organized around subjects (the program of studies)

Club programs

Relationships of pupils in classrooms and elsewhere

Student organizations

School athletics, intramural and interscholastic

Assembly programs

Publications

Social affairs

Community programs to which pupils are directed

Radio and television broadcasts recommended by the school

Trips sponsored by the school

Counseling services

Health services

Other activities and services provided by the school

From the point of view of a particular adolescent, his curriculum includes all activities which are provided or to which he is guided by the school. The schedule followed in and out of school for a sample week of one ninth-grade boy is shown in Table 28. This schedule in-

TABLE 28
Sample Week of a Ninth-Grade Pupil

PERIOD	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY
1	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Yard	} A.M. { Church school
2	Phys.ed.	Library	Phys.ed.	Library	Phys.ed.	work	
3	English	English	English	English	English	-----	
4	Civics	Civics	Civics	Civics	Civics		
5	Band	Band	Band	Band	Band		
6	Algebra	Algebra	Algebra	Algebra	Algebra	Reading	} P.M. { Reading and book report for English
3:00 to 4:00	Track	Band rehearsal	Yearbook staff	Track	School dance	and play	
Late p.m.	Homework	Homework	Homework	Homework	Homework		
Evening	Sea scouts	Reading; TV	Cotillion	Homework	Baby- sitting	Movie	Reading; TV

cludes several activities (for example, Scouts and Cotillion) not sponsored by the school, but activities which might be related to certain ones at school. It does not show some of the other experiences also provided by the school: informal relationships between boys and girls in the classrooms, corridors, and auditorium; athletic events, assemblies, field trips, and other activities which were not held this week; and conferences with teachers, counselors, and the librarian. Neither does it show less desirable experiences that adolescents have in, or as an indirect result of, school: failure in school subjects; special tutoring to avoid or adjust

for failure; truancy, and eventual dropping out of school; and unsatisfactory behavior resulting in difficulties at school and even in the community. All these experiences may also be included in, or attributed to, the curriculum of a high school pupil.

Aspects of the Curriculum

These many and varying activities which we include in the curriculum need some classification for purposes of description and analysis. For convenience, the following classification has been chosen:

- The program of studies
- Classroom organization and procedure
- Extraclass experiences
- Community experiences
- Guidance and special services

Each of these elements is briefly identified below, with appropriate references to later, more detailed treatment.

THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

As already explained, the school's program of studies is a complete list of the courses or subjects or classes offered by a school. An illustrative program of studies, to which reference will be made later, is shown in Table 29. Since some part of the program of studies must be completed for graduation, frequently the total listing is thought of as synonymous with the curriculum. Because of the great importance of the program of studies in secondary education, the major purpose of this chapter is to explain the status of programs of studies in American secondary schools.

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURE

Regardless of the subject involved, every classroom has its unique part to play in the education of the pupils who sit in it from period to period, day to day, year to year. The relations of the teacher with his pupils, their ways of working together, the physical arrangement of the classroom, the kinds of activities that go on—all of these are important in the learning of adolescents. Long after the subject matter studied in a particular class may have been forgotten, those who were once class members may still be using the techniques of committee work, the study skills, and the habits of participation in discussion which they learned there. Or they may still be copying other people's work, ignoring the

TABLE 29

High School Program of Studies in a Large Suburban Community

This table lists all of the courses which are offered for election by students in the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. The grade levels at which specific courses may be elected for credit are indicated in the columns to the right of each subject. Prerequisites, regulations, and recommendations are also indicated.

Courses marked I-II, III-IV, etc., must be studied for a full year in order to receive credit, unless written approval is given by the dean to drop the course at the end of one semester. Courses listed as Economics, English VII, etc., are one semester courses. Courses listed as Speech I and II, etc., give credit for either one semester's or one year's study.

COURSE	NUMBER	PERIODS	HOURS	ELECTIVE	PREREQUISITES	(REGULATIONS) ^b
		PER WEEK	CREDIT	OR (REQUIRED) ^a		AND RECOMMENDATIONS
<i>Art</i>						
Art	I and II	5	3	9-10-11		
Art	III and IV	5	3	10-11-12	Art II	Should have a "C" or better in Art II
Art	V and VI	5	3	11-12	Art IV	(Teacher approval required)
Art	VII and VIII	5	3	12	Art VI	(Teacher approval required)
<i>Business Education</i>						
Bookkeeping ..	I-II	5	5	10-11		
Business Law ..		5	5	11-12		
Jr. Business ...	I-II	5	5	9-10		Recommended in grade 9 for all students planning to major in Business Education.
Off. Pract.	I and II	7	5	12	Type II	
Shorthand	I-II	5	5	10A-12	Type II	"C" average in English
Shorthand	III-IV	5	5	12	Short-hand II	"C" in Shorthand II strongly recommended.
Transcription ..	I-II	5	3	12	Type II	Must accompany Shorthand III-IV
Typing	I and II	5	3	10-11-12		Recommended for all college preparatory students
Typing	III-IV	5	3	11-12	Type II	
<i>English</i>						
English	I-II	5	5	(9)		
English	III-IV	5	5	(10)	English II	
English	V-VI	5	5	(11)	English IV	
English	VII	5	5	12	Eng. V or Journ. I	"C" average in English III-VI
English	VIII	5	5	12	English VII or Journ. II or Creative Writing	"C" average in English III-VI
English	IIIR	5	5	10	English II	(Approval of parent and counselor)

^a Required subjects in parentheses.^b Regulations in parentheses.

TABLE 29 (continued)

COURSE	NUMBER	PERIODS	HOURS	ELECTIVE	PREREQUISITES	(REGULATIONS) ^b
		PER WEEK	CREDIT	OR (REQUIRED) ^a		AND RECOMMENDATIONS
English	IVR	5	5	10	English III or IIIR	(Approval of parent and counselor)
English	VR	5	5	11	English IV or IVR	(Approval of parent and counselor)
English	VIR	5	5	11	English V or VR	(Approval of parent and counselor)
Contemporary English	I-II	5	5	12	English VI or VIR	Non-college
Journalism	I	5	5	11-12	English IV	
Journalism	II	5	5	11-12	Journ. I	(May substitute for English V)
Journalism	III	5	3	12	Journ. II	
Creative Writing		5	5	12		
Speech	I and II	5	5	11-12	English IV	
<i>Foreign Languages</i>						
French	I-II	5	5	9-10-11		Should have "C" in English
French	III-IV	5	5	10-11-12	French II	
French	V-VI	5	5	11-12	French IV	"C" or better in French IV
German	I-II	5	5	10-11-12		Should have "C" average in English
German	III-IV	5	5	11-12	German II	
Latin	I-II	5	5	9-10-11		Should have "C" average in English
Latin	III-IV	5	5	10-11-12	Latin II	
Latin	V-VI	5	5	11-12	Latin IV	Should have "C" or better in Latin IV
Latin	VII-VIII	5	5	12	Latin IV	Should have "C" or better in Latin IV
Spanish	I-II	5	5	10-11		Should have "C" average in English
Spanish	III-IV	5	5	11-12	Spanish II	
<i>Homemaking</i>						
Clothing	I-II	5	3	9-10-11		Not recommended for 11th grade
Clothing	III and IV	5	3	11-12	Clothing II	
Foods	I-II	7	5	9-10-11		Not recommended for 11th grade
Homemaking ..	I-II	7	5	11-12		Strongly recommend Foods and/or Clothing first
Homemaking ..	III and IV	5	5	11-12		

^a Required subjects in parentheses.^b Regulations in parentheses.

TABLE 29 (continued)

High School Program of Studies in a Large Suburban Community

COURSE	NUMBER	PERIODS	HOURS	ELECTIVE	PREREQUISITES	(REGULATIONS) ^b
		PER WEEK	CREDIT	OR (REQUIRED) ^a		AND RECOMMENDATIONS
<i>Industrial Arts</i>						
Automotives . . .	I-II	5	3	10-11-12		
Drafting	I-II	5	3	9-10-11		Basic Industrial Arts Course
Drafting (Mech.)	III-IV	7	5	10-11-12	Drafting II	(Draw I-II)
Drafting (Arch.)	V-VI	7	5	10-11-12	Drafting II	
Driver Training		Arranged	1	Ages 15-18		
Gen. Metals . . .		5	3	9-10-11		(Draw. I must be taken before or with)
Mach. Shop	I-II	7	5	10-11-12		Gen. Metals
Printing	I-II	5	3	9-10-11		
Printing	III and IV	7	5	10-11-12	Printing II	
Welding	I-II	5	3	10-11-12	Gen. Metals	
Wood Shop	I	5	3	9-10-11		
Wood Shop	II-III	7	5	10-11-12	W. Shop I	
Wood Shop	IV	7	5	10-11-12	W. Shop III	
<i>Mathematics</i>						
Algebra	I-II	5	5	9-10		Should have a "C" average in Arith.
Algebra	III and IV	5	5	11-12	Algebra II	Should have "C" average in Alg. II
Arith.	I-II	5	5	9-10		Recommended for students who do not plan to take Alg., or who are below "C" in 8th grade Math.
Geometry	I-II	5	5	10-11	Algebra II	Should follow Alg. II for a 2-year math. sequence to meet college entrance requirement
Geometry	I-II E	5	5	10-11	Algebra II	For "B" math. students and for advanced math.
Geometry	III	5	5	12	Algebra III, Geom. II	
Ref. Math.		5	11A-12			
Trigonometry . .		5	5	12	Alg. IV, Geom. III	
<i>Music</i>						
Band		5	5	9-10-11-12		
Concert Band . .		5	5	9-10-11-12	Previous Training	Instructor's Approval
Glee Club						
(Boys')		5	3	11-12		(Instructor's Approval)
Choir		5	3	12		(Instructor's Approval)

^a Required subjects in parentheses.^b Regulations in parentheses.

TABLE 29 (continued)

COURSE	NUMBER	PERIODS	HOURS	ELECTIVE	PREREQUISITES	(REGULATIONS) ^b
		PER WEEK	CREDIT	OR (REQUIRED) ^a		AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Glee Club (Girls')		5	3	11-12		Should be preceded by Gen. mus. I-II
General Music .	I-II	5	3	10-11-12		
Music						
Appreciation ..		2	1	10-11-12		
Ninth Chorus ..		3	3	9		
Music						
Literature	I-II	5	5	11-12		Instructor's Approval
Orchestra		3	3	9-10-11-12		
<i>Physical Education</i>						
Physical Edu- cation (Boys) ..		2, 3	1, 1½	9-10-11-12		
Physical Edu- cation (Girls) ..		2, 3	1, 1½	9-10-11-12		
<i>Social Studies</i>						
Civics	I-II	5	5	(9)		Transfer students take in 10 if not taken in grade 9
American Government ...		5	5	11-12		(Required unless Civics II is taken in grades 9 or 10)
Economics		5	5	11-12		Combine with Ameri- can Government for unit of credit.
Effective Living		5	5	12		
Successful Living		2	1	(9)		
History	I-II	5	5	(10-11)		
History	III-IV	5	5	(11-12)	History II	
History	V-VI	5	5	12	History IV	
<i>Science</i>						
App. Science ..	I-II	5	5	11-12		Non-college
Biology	I-II	7	5	10-11		
Chemistry	I-II	7	5	11-12	Algebra II	Recommend "C" aver- age in Math.
Physics	I-II	7	5	11-12	{ Algebra II, Geometry II	Recommend "C+" av- erage in Math.
Science	I-II	5	5	9		Recommended for 12th grade

^a Required subjects in parentheses.^b Regulations in parentheses.

Source: *The Pointer—Handbook for Students of the Grosse Pointe High School* (Grosse Pointe, Mich.: The Schools, 1957), pp. 76-79. The principal, Jerry J. Gerich, has advised the authors that Russian would be added to the foreign language offering in 1959-1960.

courtesies of group discussion, and being the poor leaders they were allowed to be in high school. The significant fact to be emphasized and never forgotten by teachers is that the interpersonal relationships of the classroom comprise an all-important aspect of the curriculum.

We fully recognize the difficulty of separating the "what" and "how" of classroom activity. For purposes of analysis of the high school curriculum, however, we believe it desirable to consider the program of studies (the "what") and classroom organization and procedure (the "how") as different aspects of the curriculum. For one reason, the program of studies is a definite program of a school as a whole, whereas classroom organization and procedure vary from one teacher to the next even in the same school.

EXTRACLASSEXPERIENCES

The concept of the curriculum as the total program of the school really makes incorrect the use of the term "extracurricular activities" in connection with activities provided by the school. Thus, all the clubs, athletics, social affairs, student publications, and other noncredit activities characteristic of the modern high school are as much a part of the school curriculum as are the required and elective classes in English, mathematics, and other subjects. Although many of the activities once offered purely on a voluntary, noncredit, afterschool basis have become credit courses included in the program of studies, secondary schools in general still provide a wide variety of activities which are not so included.

COMMUNITY EXPERIENCES

Many of the learning experiences adolescents have away from it are not influenced by the school. Important as the experiences such as those shown in our ninth-grade pupil's week may be, we are not considering them here except as they are influenced by the school. It should be noted, however, that adolescents' reading, television viewing, movies, even their baby-sitting and other minor work experiences, may be directed in part by the school. Many other out-of-school learning experiences which are influenced by the school arise from the program of studies or the activity program. Thus, homework, field trips, out-of-town athletic events occur away from school but are created by school activities. Still other learning experiences in the community are organized by the school without any particular relationship to the program of studies or in-school activities. Examples are work-experience projects, community surveys, and community clean-up campaigns.

GUIDANCE AND OTHER SPECIAL SERVICES

A major difference between the modern American high school and its predecessor institutions is found in the extensive services now offered to individual pupils. These services generally include guidance along educational, vocational, and personal lines. In many larger high schools there are also such services as social case work, health, continuation classes, educational opportunities for handicapped students, and job placement.

Programs of Studies

Because graduation and college entrance requirements commonly are for four years, grades 9 through 12, this section will be particularly concerned with the program of studies in these grades.

Although a relatively small number of high schools offer core courses (see Chapter 12) in lieu of, or as combinations of, certain of the traditional subjects, usually English and the social studies, the program of studies is typically a list of subjects. Many new titles have been introduced, and what was once an activity may now be a subject, but once a course title, however different from traditional ones, is given and the class scheduled as a credit offering, a subject is considered as having been added to the program of studies. The many titles which are thus possible are indicated by the most recent United States Office of Education survey of high school offerings, showing a list of 274 specific subject titles as classified from the reports by the high schools included. This number reported in the last survey made, that of 1948-1949, compares with 206 subjects reported in the preceding survey for 1933-1934. Of the 274 subjects, 194 were offered in fifteen or more states and 80 in less than fifteen states; these figures compare with 111 and 95, respectively, in the 1933-1934 survey.¹ We may better understand the possibilities of the program of studies by examining the findings of this survey in more detail as well as those of more recent state surveys. It may also be helpful to study typical graduation requirements, recommended programs of studies for various purposes, and some sample programs taken by individual pupils in their entire period of secondary education.

BROAD SUBJECT FIELDS

The United States Office of Education survey of 1948-1949 enrollments listed 118 specifically named courses under thirteen broad sub-

¹ U.S. Office of Education, "Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects, 1948-49," Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education, 1948-50* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951), pp. 2, 4.

ject fields and also provided for the writing in of additional course titles. Although the write-ins were consolidated as much as possible, they still accounted for the addition of 156 course titles to make the total of 274 course titles available in grades 7 through 12 of the secondary schools reporting. The broad subject fields included in the survey are as follows:

- English
- Social studies
- Science
- Mathematics
- Foreign languages
- Industrial arts—nonvocational
- Trade and industrial education—vocational
- Business education
- Home economics
- Agriculture
- Health, safety, and physical education
- Music
- Art²

In general, the program of studies of American secondary schools include courses in these fields. Junior high schools rarely offer work in vocational trade and industrial education, and many offer little or nothing in business education and foreign languages. Urban schools rarely offer courses in agriculture, and the offerings of small rural schools may be largely restricted to the more academic areas. The program of studies shown in Table 29 is from an economically favored suburban community. Since college preparation is a dominant purpose here, the academic subjects are emphasized; however, there is a substantial offering in business education, homemaking, and industrial arts.

GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

The relation of graduation requirements to the program of studies may be indicated by citing these requirements in grades 10–12 of the senior high school (Grosse Pointe, Michigan) from which the illustrative program of studies was reproduced in Table 29:

I. ATTENDANCE AND CREDIT

All candidates for graduation must have been in attendance in this school for at least one year and must have completed a minimum of 124 hours (12.4 units) of work.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 109–118. These pages list under these headings the 274 course titles (and also many groups of subordinated titles, different in wording but interpreted to mean the same course as that under which listed).

II. SPECIFIC COURSE REQUIREMENTS

All candidates for graduation must have credit in the following courses:

English, 20 hours (English III, IV, V, VI—two years' work).

American government,* 5 hours (twelfth grade) *unless* the student has had Civics I and II (ten hours in ninth grade).

World history, 10 hours (tenth or eleventh grade).

American history, 10 hours (eleventh or twelfth grade).

Science, 10 hours (tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grade—including biology, physics, chemistry, and consumer science).

Physical education, 4 hours; boys must take physical education each semester grades 10, 11, 12—girls each semester grades 10 and 11.

Fine or practical arts, 5 hours (for students who have not had it in ninth grade).

A certain degree of functional competence in mathematics.

III. CONTINUITY OF STUDY

The credits offered for graduation must be so grouped as to show one three-year sequence and three two-year sequences. A three-year sequence is completed by three years' work in the same department, or completion of courses equivalent to three years of work.

IV. RECOGNITION AT GRADUATION

Graduation with honors: A diploma stating on its face that the student's scholastic record warrants "honors" recognition is issued to all students having an average of B or better for the three years' work.

Graduation with diploma: A diploma will be issued to all other students who have completed the requirements for graduation.³

* Following American government, Economics (1 semester) should be taken to complete the unit.

The standard accounting system for high school graduation and college entrance has been the "Carnegie unit" as developed under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to provide some uniformity in the accounting of high school studies. However, equivalent systems such as the "hours" referred to in the Grosse Pointe requirements are also utilized and may permit needed flexibility. A unit is the credit for a course that meets five periods (each usually about 50 to 55 minutes) weekly throughout the academic year. Graduation requirements usually stipulate that sixteen units, grades 9 through 12, or twelve units, grades 10 through 12, must be satisfactorily completed. Health and physical education is sometimes also given unit credit; in this case the total number of required units is generally in-

³ *The Pointer—Handbook for Students of the Grosse Pointe High School* (Grosse Pointe, Mich.: The Schools, 1957), p. 75. Reprinted by permission of Principal J. J. Gerich.

creased so that health and physical education is in effect an additional requirement.

Despite the existence of at least the 274 different courses in the high schools of America and of long lists of courses for single schools as shown in Table 29, there is a rather consistent specification of about half the total number of units required for graduation. The states vary considerably in requirements; in 1955, from one-half unit specified in one state to eleven units in another.⁴ But the predominant ideas of what should be studied in high school as reflected in college entrance requirements, accrediting standards, board of education regulations, and educators' practices, especially in counseling pupils, result in considerable uniformity in requirements, as we shall see in examining particular programs of studies.

A survey of state graduation requirements showed the typical requirements in 1955 to be as follows: English, three or four units; social studies, one, two, or three; science, one, and mathematics, one, or none of either subject; and one to four years of instruction in health and physical education which might or might not be allowed unit credit. A follow-up survey in 1957 indicated that at this time the typical state was more likely to require one unit of mathematics and one unit of science.⁵

The fact that a high school requires only about half of a student's program in specific subjects does not mean that he is wholly free to choose his other half from the program of studies offered by the school. In the schools which offer extensive electives, pupils are asked to choose programs or "curricula" in which there are specific courses required or strongly recommended in addition to the minimum requirements for all students. Counseling services are generally available in these schools to help pupils make their choices. Thus, comprehensive high schools may list alternate programs of studies described as "college preparatory," "commercial," "general," "vocational," "diversified occupations," and "homemaking," for example.

To substantiate our conclusions regarding the dominance of certain subjects in general, attention is called to Tables 30 and 31. Table 30 presents the program of studies of a high school of several hundred students in a community of approximately 5,000 population, a program that we consider somewhat typical of the thousands of such communities in the United States.

⁴ Kenneth Hovet, "What Are the High Schools Teaching?" Chap. 3 in *What Shall the High Schools Teach?* (1956 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1956), p. 71.

⁵ See Grace S. Wright, *High School Graduation Requirements Established by State Departments of Education* (U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 455, revised, January, 1958; Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1958), p. 1.

TABLE 30

High School Program of Studies in a Typical Community of About 5,000

FRESHMAN

English I ^a
 Arithmetic
 Algebra I
 General science
 Agriculture I
 Home economics I
 Physical education ($\frac{1}{4}$ unit) ^a
 Band (no credit)
 Shop I
 Civics
 Latin I (odd years)

SOPHOMORE

English II ^a
 Algebra II
 Health ^a
 Agriculture II
 Home economics II
 Latin II (even years)
 Shop II
 Physical education ($\frac{1}{4}$ unit) ^a
 Band (no credit)
 Biology
 World geography (odd years)
 World history (even years)

JUNIOR

English III ^a
 Algebra II
 Plane geometry (1 yr. of Alg. required)
 Typing I
 Agriculture III
 Physics (Alg. II required) (odd years)
 Home economics III
 Physical education ($\frac{1}{4}$ unit) ^a
 Band (credit optional)
 Shorthand (even years)
 or
 Bookkeeping (odd years)
 Chemistry (even years)
 Economics (on demand)

SENIOR

English IV ^a
 Plane geometry
 Office practice
 Agriculture IV
 Home economics IV
 Physics (odd years)
 Physical education ($\frac{1}{4}$ unit) ^a
 Band (credit optional)
 American history ^a
 Chemistry (even years)
 Shorthand (odd years)
 Bookkeeping (odd years)
 Solid geometry & trigonometry

^a Required subjects.

One unit in mathematics required.

Band for credit—III & IV only.

Five subjects allowed only if student made honor roll in majority of subjects in previous year. Exceptions are made for members of the senior class.

Physical education required for all students unless excused by doctor.

Students who plan to go to college are advised not to overload on vocational units.

Source: Supplied by W. O. Warren, Superintendent, McKenzie (Tennessee) City Schools, 1958.

TABLE 31

Program of Studies in a Small High School

	GRADE	WEEKS	PERIODS PER WEEK
<i>English</i>			
Seventh	7	36	5
Eighth	8	36	5
1	9	36	5
2	10	36	5
3	11	36	5
4	12	36	5
<i>Social Studies</i>			
Seventh	7	36	5
Eighth	8	36	5
World geography ^a	9	18	5
World history	10	36	5
American history	11	36	5
American government	12	18	5
Modern problems ^a	12	18	5
<i>Mathematics</i>			
Seventh	7	36	5
Eighth	8	36	5
General mathematics	9	36	5
Geometry ^a	11 & 12	36	5
Algebra	11 & 12	36	5
<i>Science</i>			
Seventh	7	36	5
Eighth	8	36	5
General science	9	36	5
Biology	10	36	5
Chemistry ^a	11 & 12	36	5
Physics	11 & 12	36	5
<i>Business Education</i>			
Typing	10	36	5
Bookkeeping ^a	11 & 12	36	5
Office practice ^a	11 & 12	36	5
General business	9	18	3
Consumer economics ^a	11 & 12	18	5
Shorthand ^a	11 & 12	36	5
Business law	11 & 12	18	5
<i>Homemaking</i>			
Home economics 9	9	36	2
Home economics 1	11 & 12	36	5
Home economics 2	11 & 12	36	5

TABLE 31 (continued)

	GRADE	WEEKS	PERIODS PER WEEK
<i>Industrial Arts</i>			
Industrial arts 9	9	36	2
Industrial arts 1	11 & 12	36	5
Industrial arts 2	11 & 12	36	5
<i>Music</i>			
Band	all	36	5 (no credit)
Vocal music	9-12	36	5 (½ credit)
<i>Driver Education</i>			
Driver education	9 & 10	18	3
Student council	9-12	36	no credit
School paper	9-12	36	no credit
Annual staff	9-12	36	no credit

^a Offered alternate years.

Source: This 1957-1958 program of studies for the Axtell (Nebraska) High School is on file in the Department of Secondary Education, Teachers College, University of Nebraska.

Table 31 presents the program of studies in 1957-1958 in a small Nebraska high school (enrollment about 75) that is making a determined effort to provide a full program of studies despite its small size. Although these smaller schools (Tables 30 and 31) necessarily offer less choice of courses than do large metropolitan ones, it is interesting that their students may still have opportunities in such areas as business education, driver education, industrial arts, music, and others.

NATIONAL ENROLLMENT TRENDS

Some of the history of secondary education in this country is documented in part by Table 32. These data, taken from the United States Office of Education's 1948-1949 survey, show the changes in popularity or requirements, as evidenced by percentage of pupils enrolled, of various major subjects. Each percentage is that of the total number of pupils in grades 9 through 12 who were enrolled in the subject concerned at the time of the survey. Thus 92.9 per cent of all pupils, grades 9 through 12, in 1948-1949 were enrolled in some English class.

These enrollment data show the increasing requirement in this century of courses in English; the establishment of American history as

TABLE 32

Percentage of Pupils Enrolled in Certain Subjects in the Last Four Years of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1889-1890 to 1948-1949

SUBJECT	1890	1900	1910	1915	1922	1928	1934	1949
English	—	38.5	57.1	58.4	76.7	93.1 ^a	90.5	92.9
U.S. history	} 27.3 ^b	38.2 ^b	55.0 ^b	50.5	{ 15.3 2.9	{ 17.9 0.9	{ 17.3 0.5	} 22.8 ^c
English history								
World history	—	—	—	—	—	6.1	11.9	16.2
Civil government	} —	21.7	16.6	15.7	19.3	{ 6.6 13.4	{ 6.0 10.4	} 5.8 ^d ^e
Comm. government								
Problems of democracy	—	—	—	—	—	1.0	3.5	5.2
Economics	—	—	—	—	4.8	5.1	4.9	4.7
Sociology	—	—	—	—	2.4	2.7	2.5	3.4
General science	—	—	—	—	18.3	17.5	17.8	20.8
Biology	—	—	1.1	6.9	8.8	13.6	14.6	18.4
Botany	—	—	15.8	9.1	3.8	1.6	0.9	0.1
Physiology	—	27.4	15.3	9.5	5.1	2.7	1.8	1.0
Zoology	—	—	6.9	3.2	1.5	0.8	0.6	0.1
Chemistry	10.1	7.7	6.9	7.4	7.4	7.1	7.6	7.6
Physics	22.8	19.0	14.6	14.2	8.9	6.8	6.3	5.4
Algebra	45.4	56.3	56.9	48.8	40.2	35.2	30.4	26.8
General mathematics	—	—	—	—	12.4	7.9	7.4	13.1
Geometry	21.3	27.4	30.9	26.5	22.7	19.8	17.1	12.8
Trigonometry	—	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3	2.0
Spanish	—	—	0.7	2.7	11.3	9.4	6.2	8.2
Latin	34.7	50.6	49.0	37.3	27.5	22.0	16.0	7.8
French	5.8	7.8	9.9	8.8	15.5	14.0	10.9	4.7
German	10.5	14.3	23.7	24.4	0.6	1.8	2.4	0.8
Industrial subjects	—	—	—	11.2	13.7	13.5	21.0	26.6 ^f
Bookkeeping	—	—	—	3.4	12.6	10.7	9.9	8.7
Typewriting	—	—	—	—	13.1	15.2	16.7	22.5
Shorthand	—	—	—	—	8.9	8.7	9.0	7.8
Home economics	—	—	3.8	12.9	14.3	16.5	16.7	24.2
Agriculture	—	—	4.7	7.2	5.1	3.7	3.6	6.7
Physical education	—	—	—	—	5.7	15.0	50.7	69.4 ^f
Music	—	—	—	31.5	25.3	26.0	25.5	30.1 ^f
Art	—	—	—	22.9	14.7	11.7	8.7	9.0

^a Includes enrollment in composition and literature.

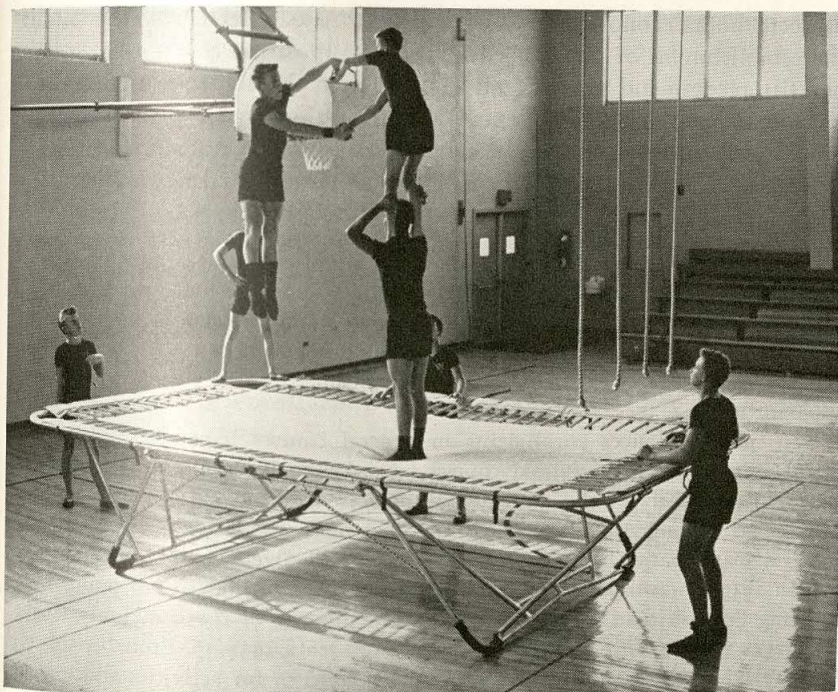
^b Includes ancient history, and medieval and modern history.

^c Data are for U.S. History (advanced) only, grades 10-12.

^d Data are for American government or advanced civics only, grades 10-12.

^e Comparable data for 1948-1949 not available.

^f Enrollment in grades 9-12 estimated on the basis of the percentage enrolled in the



Physical Education Is Now Included in the Curriculum. Once only an unsupervised recess activity, physical education has become a significant, required part of the high school program of studies. (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

a separate course (from English history); the substitution of general science and biology for the separate natural sciences; the decline in percentage (but *not* the number) of pupils enrolled in certain traditional subjects; the decline of Latin as *the* language; and the introduction and popularization of the prevocational subjects (industrial subjects, business

subject in regular (4-year) and senior high schools together, applied to the total number of pupils enrolled in grades 9-12 in all types of public secondary day schools. This estimation was necessary because the data did not fully identify enrollment by grade.

Source: Adapted from U.S. Office of Education, "Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects, 1948-49," Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education, 1948-50* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951), Table 7, pp. 107-108. The original table has this note of general explanation: "When necessary, the subjects reported in previous surveys were either recombined, separately listed, or eliminated (with corresponding changes in the number and percentage enrolled) in a manner to yield as close comparability as possible with the data of the current (1948-49) survey." We have also used certain footnotes that apply to the data included in our table.

subjects, home economics, and agriculture). Also reflected by the data is the establishment of physical education and music as credit courses. We heartily recommend study of all these data in the light of earlier chapters on the development of secondary education in the United States. It may help in interpreting the tabular data here to note certain of the trends commented upon by the authors of the national survey in 1948-1949:

. . . For the most part, the changes are in the direction of more functional education. They represent efforts to meet life needs of increasingly diverse bodies of pupils. This is not to suggest that high-school pupils were a homogeneous group in 1934. The democratization of the high school began long before that, and the changes reported here are largely continuations of trends which were apparent in 1934. . . .

In many instances enrollments in general courses have expanded while enrollments in more specialized courses have declined. Enrollments in biology have grown greatly at the expense of those in zoology and botany. General science has expanded at the expense of other more specific subjects of science. General mathematics has grown at the expense of algebra and geometry. . . .

In 1949 it was reported for the first time that more high-school pupils were studying Spanish than Latin. Spanish is the only one of the commonly taught languages which gained appreciably during the years 1934-49. Probably this reflects relaxed college-entrance requirements, a concern for activities which seem likely to be of practical use, and the Nation's Good Neighbor Policy.

While the actual enrollments in the historical table are not comparable, in a number of subjects it was possible to make defensible estimates of actual as well as percentage enrollments in all the national investigations carried on since 1915. Percentage enrollments in algebra, geometry, physics, and Latin have shown progressive decreases in all investigations since 1915. *However, from 1915 through 1934 the actual enrollments in these subjects were increasing while the percentages were decreasing. During those years enrollment gains in new subjects often obscured the fact that as many youth as ever before were enrolled in a traditional subject.*⁶

FURTHER DATA REGARDING MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

Unfortunately, the 1948-1949 survey is the most recent national one of enrollments in all subjects. However, the Office of Education has made more recent surveys of offerings and enrollments in science and mathematics in response to the widespread concern over the shortage of scientists and engineers and the related criticism of high schools for their alleged failure to teach enough science and mathematics. The survey of

⁶ U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 26-29. (Italics supplied.) We have quoted only a few excerpts regarding some of the trends noted in the report. The entire document may well be studied by readers.

1954 enrollments clarified considerably the situation with respect to these subjects, and in the following paragraph answered directly some of the criticisms:

This study reveals that some public statements on high-school science and mathematics enrollments are erroneous. For example, it has been said that 50 per cent of the public high schools offer neither physics nor chemistry. The fact is, however, that in 1954 the actual percentage was only about 23. It has also been stated that only 1 out of 22 high-school students take physics, whereas actually the ratio is closer to 1 out of 5. The number of pupils in chemistry has not declined 30 per cent during the past 60 years—it has increased more than twentyfold. Two-thirds of the high-school pupils take algebra, instead of one-fourth.⁷

The survey of enrollments in the fall of 1956 led to the following conclusion:

For several years, the percentage of pupils enrolled in certain science and mathematics courses declined. The present study shows that between 1954 and 1956, both percentage and numbers increased. During 1956-57 more pupils en-

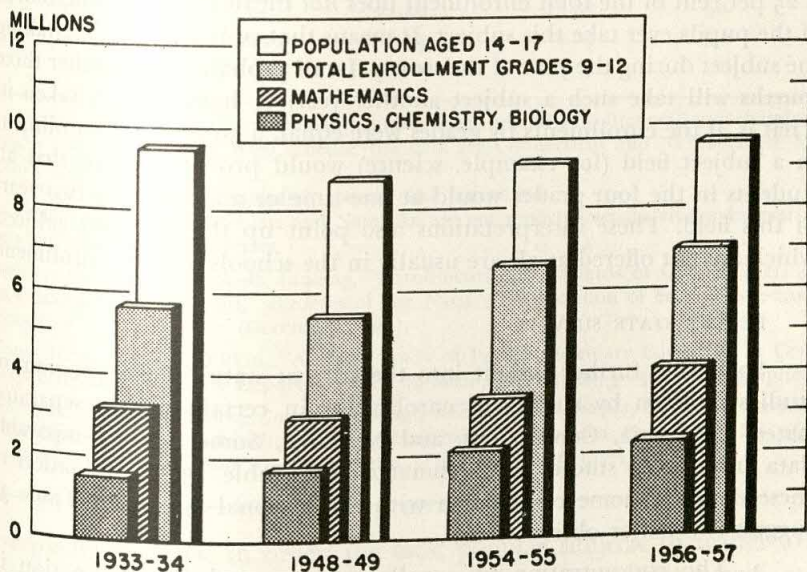


Figure 8. Mathematics and Science Enrollments Have Increased. (From Kenneth E. Brown and Ellsworth S. Obourn, *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools*; U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 120, 1957, cover.)

⁷ Kenneth E. Brown, *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 118; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 2.

rolled in high school science and mathematics than during any previous year in the history of our Nation.⁸

The data regarding certain science and mathematics enrollments in 1956 (and 1954) were summarized in the following statements:

1. Enrollment in biology equaled 75.5 per cent of the number of pupils in the 10th grade; in 1954 the figure was 72.6 per cent.
2. Enrollment in chemistry equaled 34.6 per cent of the number of pupils in the 11th grade; in 1954 the figure was 31.9 per cent.
3. Enrollment in physics equaled 24.3 per cent of the number of pupils in the 12th grade; in 1954 the figure was 23.5 per cent.
4. Enrollment in plane geometry equaled 41.6 per cent of the number of pupils in the 10th grade; in 1954 the figure was 37.4 per cent.
5. Enrollment in intermediate algebra equaled 32.2 per cent of the number of pupils in the 11th grade; in 1954 the figure was 28.5 per cent.⁹

Such interpretations of the enrollments help us realize that the percentages of total enrollments as cited in Table 31 can be quite misleading. The fact that an enrollment in a particular subject (biology, for example) is 25 per cent of the total enrollment does *not* mean that only one fourth of the pupils ever take this subject. It means that only a fourth are taking the subject during the year of the survey. In all probability the other three fourths will take such a subject another year, or have already taken it. That is, if the enrollments by grades were equal, a 50 per cent enrollment in a subject field (for example, science) would probably mean that all students in the four grades would at one time or another take two years in this field. These interpretations also point up the fact that subjects which are not offered at all are usually in the schools of least enrollment.

RECENT STATE SURVEYS

Somewhat further insight into the current status of the program of studies is given by studies of enrollments in certain widely separated states: California, Connecticut, and Nebraska. Some fairly comparable data from these studies are summarized in Table 33. Examination of these data and some comparison with the national figures in Table 32 suggest two major observations:

1. The concentration of enrollments reported for the nation in 1948-1949 seems to be little different from that in more recent surveys of these three states. That is, these more recent data tend to confirm the general significance of the 1948-1949 national survey. English is taken by

⁸ Kenneth E. Brown and Ellsworth S. Obourn, *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 120; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 2.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

TABLE 33

Percentage of All Pupils Enrolled in Classes, by Subject Fields,
in California, Connecticut, and Nebraska

SUBJECT FIELD	PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS ENROLLED IN CLASSES OF SUBJECT FIELD		
	CALIFORNIA ^a	CONNECTICUT	NEBRASKA
	1951-52	1955-56	1955-56
English ^b	100.45	101.19	105.6
Social studies	94.65	81.89	82.4
Mathematics	62.90	61.58	55.3
Science	44.76	53.17	51.9
Business	38.75	68.91	54.7
Industrial arts ^c	38.19	24.69	21.7
Music	29.92	26.59	65.5
Homemaking	26.58	21.39	19.8
Foreign languages	21.54	41.11	10.1
Art	21.38	17.93	5.0
Vocational agriculture	0.54	0.09	9.1
Trades and industries ^c	0.21	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>

^a The data for California include junior high school enrollments, and therefore grades 7 and 8 in junior high schools; the data for Connecticut and Nebraska are for grades 9-12 only.

^b Including debate, dramatics, speech, and journalism.

^c The data for Connecticut and Nebraska are not reported separately for industrial arts and trades and industries.

Sources: California: Frank B. Lindsay, "Enrollments and Patterns of Course Offerings in California High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 206), 38:7 (December, 1954).

Connecticut: Victor E. Pitkin, "A Status Study of Public Secondary Education in Connecticut" (Hartford: State Department of Education, June, 1956), p. 37. Mimeographed.

Nebraska: J. Galen Saylor, *Course Offerings, Subject Enrollments, Size, and Current Expenditures for Nebraska High Schools* (University of Nebraska, Publication No. 195, Contribution to Education No. 32; Lincoln: The University, 1957), pp. 15-18.

everybody, in effect; in order, the most popular subjects thereafter are social studies, mathematics, and science. The sum of percentages enrolled in the various subjects in mathematics in 1948-1949 was 54.7 per cent, which was slightly exceeded by the total mathematics enrollments in each of these three states in the later year reported. Similarly, the national total in science was 53.4 in 1948-1949, which is very slightly more than the 1955-1956 totals in Connecticut and Nebraska. The California data are hardly comparable in these fields, since the inclusion of grades 7 and 8 in the California survey probably results in increasing the

percentage enrolled in mathematics (taken by all 7th- and 8th-graders) and decreasing that in science (not uniformly given in grades 7 and 8). The broad fields are the same in these three states and the enrollment percentages of these fields correspond in most instances (especially when the inclusion of grades 7 and 8 in the California data is noted).

2. The enrollment in business subjects and foreign languages in grades 8 through 12 in Connecticut and Nebraska and in art and vocational agriculture in the three states suggests that some curriculum adjustments are made to local conditions. The classical tradition and the coastal location of the New England states are undoubtedly factors which hold up enrollments in languages in Connecticut as compared with Nebraska (again the 7th- and 8th-grade enrollments affect the California figure). The large number of small high schools and consequent restricted curriculum offerings in Nebraska explain the lower foreign language and art enrollments there. Although one would expect to find even more enrollment¹⁰ in vocational agriculture in a state so dependent on farming, the 9.08 per cent in Nebraska is many times that in California and Connecticut and greater than the 1949 figure of 6.7 per cent for the nation.

THE PUPIL'S PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN GRADES 9-12

What do all these data add up to? They show, we conclude, that high school pupils throughout the United States are taking very similar lists of subjects in grades 9-12. We shall examine in somewhat more detail the actual nature of these courses in Chapters 11 (general education) and 13 (specialized education). For our present purposes we may conclude that in grades 9-12, the majority of students take three years of English, and most take four; three years of social studies; two years of science; two years of mathematics; and two to four years of physical education. In addition they may elect some five or six units, not including physical education, and even more if their record permits them to take five "solid" subjects a year. In larger schools these electives may be, but do not always have to be, in an area of specialization such as agriculture, business, homemaking, industrial training, art, music, diversified occupations, or further college preparatory work. In many schools electives may be selected from several of these areas. Also, the particular subjects listed within the broad fields are much the same, although there may be considerable variation in number and in titles.

Confirming our conclusions that all schools provide a somewhat uniform, minimum list of subjects is the statement in the California

¹⁰ It should be noted that the percentage of total enrollment in vocational agriculture in Nebraska is 11.6 per cent when Omaha and Lincoln are excluded.

survey we have cited: that certain courses "are almost always available to students, whether the four-year secondary school is under 100 or over 1500 in enrollment." This survey cited twenty-three such courses as follows:

English, grade 9	Biology or life science
English, grade 10	Chemistry
English, grade 11	General mathematics
English, grade 12	Algebra, first year
Spanish, first year	Plane geometry
Spanish, second year	Art or arts and crafts
United States history	Band, first year
Civic and senior problems (world history, grade 10, or orientation, grade 9)	Band, second year, or chorus
Homemaking, first year	Typing, first year
Homemaking, second year	Typing, second year
	Mechanical drawing, first year
	Mechanical drawing, second year, or woodshop ¹¹

To compare further pupils' programs throughout the country we have examined the actual subjects taken by a number of students graduating from high schools of quite different size and later entering universities. We found the following pattern to be the most usual one for graduates of schools in quite different communities:

English	4 units
Social studies	3 units
Mathematics	3 units
Science	3 units
Foreign language	2 units
Electives (usually additional in above fields)	1 or more units

The fact is that this is the traditional college entrance pattern, perhaps a little lighter in foreign languages and heavier in social studies than it was a generation ago.

It is interesting to compare the situation as it exists with the widely awaited recommendations of the study by James B. Conant, former Harvard president, of the American high school. In his 1959 report of the study, Conant recommended that the requirements for graduation for all students should be: "four years of English, three or four years of social studies—including two years of history (one of which should be American history) and a senior course in American problems or American govern-

¹¹ Frank B. Lindsay, "Enrollment Patterns of Course Offerings in California High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 206), 38:12 (December, 1954).

ment—one year of mathematics in the ninth grade (algebra or general mathematics), and at least one year of science in the ninth or tenth grade, which might well be biology or general physical science.” For the academically talented students he would add as a minimum two years of mathematics, two years of science, and four years of one foreign language.¹² Thus the most significant difference between usual practice and the Conant recommendations is in the study of foreign languages. Undoubtedly American high schools must make increased provisions for the study of languages.

PROGRAMS OF STUDIES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Junior high schools vary very widely in organization and program. Although the grade-7-through-9 organization is most frequent, the grade-7-and-8 and grades-7-through-10 combinations are also found in many schools. In these varying organizations one finds a wide range of practice in curriculum from a program very similar to the self-contained (nondepartmentalized) classroom of the elementary school to one identical with the completely departmentalized program of the senior high school.

Typically, the pupil enrolled in grades 7 and 8 continues his general education through language arts, social studies, mathematics, and health and physical education. If he attends a junior high school having the necessary facilities, he may also have exploratory courses, frequently short term, in such fields as industrial arts (usually boys only), home economics (usually girls only), art, music, and dramatics. In grade 9 he probably continues language arts and social studies, and has more freedom as to other subjects than in grades 7 and 8. Usually his electives are from mathematics, science, foreign languages, industrial arts, home economics, business education or agriculture, and in most schools at least one, maybe two, of these fields, especially mathematics and science, are required. The data in Table 34, regarding elective subjects in junior high schools, were reported in 1955 by the United States Office of Education.

In addition to the practices just described, we should note that some type of core curriculum or combination of subjects taught by one teacher is frequently found in the separate junior high school organization, especially in grades 7 and 8. This plan, which seeks to ease the transition from the nondepartmentalized elementary school to the departmentalized high school, is described in detail in Chapter 12.

¹² James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), pp. 47, 57.

TABLE 34

Per Cent of Junior High Schools Permitting Number of Elective Credits

	NONE	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	NO REPLY
Grade 7	61	7	22	1	3	0	6
Grade 8	37	8	29	4	10	0	12
Grade 9	8	2	22	5	46	8	9

Source: Walter H. Gaumnitz and committee, *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis* (Miscellaneous Bulletin, 1955, No. 21, U.S. Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955), p. 50.

These data were taken from a survey of a representative sample of 350 junior high schools by John H. Lounsbury in a study at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

PROGRAMS OF STUDIES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

The junior college movement is developing so rapidly in the United States, with the great impetus of expanding enrollments in education beyond the twelfth grade, that it is very difficult to draw any general picture of the programs of studies offered. There are many different types of junior colleges—private, public, and community colleges—and considerable variation in the programs between and within types. Although we conceive of the community college, which has sometimes included grades 11–14, as a type of secondary school, we must acknowledge that the junior college is not popularly considered a secondary school. Therefore for present purposes we should simply note that the twelfth-grade graduate who continues his education in a junior college may find available to him one or more of the following types of programs of studies, depending on which college he actually selects:

Preparation for advanced study. Most junior colleges offer programs of studies which parallel the freshman and sophomore years of the standard four-year program of the senior college or university. These programs are usually planned to include adequate courses to qualify the student for continuing his studies in a professional school of the university.

Vocational education. The chief contribution of the community college or institute has been to supply vocational or technical training in grades 13 and 14.

General education. The junior college offers continued general education, building upon the program of studies of the senior high school and paralleling in most instances the offering of the first two years of any general or liberal arts college. Thus, courses in English,

social sciences, science, mathematics, languages, and many special-interest areas are universally available.

Similarities and Differences of Secondary School Programs

One of the distinctive features of American secondary education is its lack of uniformity from school to school. There are great similarities, perhaps more than we would like in the programs of studies of schools in communities having very different characteristics. There are also great variations, especially in the range of studies and in their actual planning and teaching. This lack of uniformity is not surprising in view of the lack of a centralized national system of schools and in view of the American belief in local control and initiative. The democratic principles described in Part II would be expected to influence the development of school programs suited to the social and economic settings of their communities. As communities have become less isolated and the population more mobile, it was also to be expected that similarities in community institutions would develop. In this section we need to review the factors (also see Chapter 5) which tend toward similarities and differences in the programs of secondary schools. Our reference here is again to the total curriculum, not just the program of studies, which has the marked uniformity we have described. It should also be noted that a single factor, for example, educational purposes, may operate so as to make for both similarities and differences.

TOWARD SIMILARITIES

As we observe secondary school practices, we note that the following influences seem to make for similarities in practice: educational purposes, tradition, control by external agencies, use of curriculum guides and textbooks, and interpretation of educational research. These influences are described in the following paragraphs.

Educational purposes. Although various statements (see Chapter 6) of educational purposes have been developed by professional groups, certain fundamental aims have been basic to all. Thus, the purpose of preparation for citizenship is probably accepted at least to a degree by all persons associated with American secondary schools. Although these persons vary in their understanding of the prerequisites and obligations of citizenship and correspondingly of the experiences youth need in preparation for it, few would question the study of American history and government as one essential experience. All secondary schools therefore provide for this study, usually through one or more required units. Similarly, the purpose of preparation for further study has typically been interpreted to mean that all secondary school youth should have the

opportunity to take courses in fields, such as mathematics and foreign languages, traditionally considered as essential to college success. Accordingly, these courses are "musts" in the usual program of studies. The goal of literacy, once regarded primarily as a responsibility for the elementary school only, is now interpreted to necessitate required courses in English, frequently including speech. Various other purposes such as health, vocational training, aesthetic and leisure interests, and preparation for family life are also widely accepted as justifying the inclusion of related courses in the program of studies. Although the nature of all these courses may vary considerably from school to school, we have noted that there is marked similarity in the courses required for graduation in all secondary schools. These common ideas of what is essential for the secondary school graduate are generally founded on beliefs as to the purposes of the school and then implemented to an extent by other factors to be described.

Tradition. The force of tradition operates in several ways to make the programs of secondary schools alike. One way is through curriculum planning based on studies of present practice in other schools. In schools, as in some other social institutions, average, typical, or most common practice is frequently considered a sound guide for planning. To provide certain courses and activities simply because they are commonly provided is to assume that what has been should continue to be. Past experiences of adults concerned with program planning tend to perpetuate traditional practices. The planning of the school's program by the faculty is frequently based very largely on faculty members' past experiences, and these experiences, if markedly similar, may merely be re-created for the youth concerned. Parents also frequently advise their children to pursue the studies they themselves pursued or wish they might have pursued. Also, the regulation by external agency, which we next consider, is itself frequently a result of the past experiences of those who make the regulation. Hence regulations may be ways of perpetuating past experience, both good and poor, in terms of present and future needs.

Furthermore, tradition may be a direct source of uniform practice. Many educators and laymen contend that the best guide for educational planning in general is the past. Have you ever been told that "what was good enough for your fathers is good enough for you"? This belief may be strong—it has certainly had wide influence—but it overlooks the factor of change. Tradition has attributed a certain respectability to some subjects, and parents (and their children) want them included, perhaps required, in the school program. If we could assume constant, unchanging social conditions and needs of youth, then all we need to do is to find the curriculum plan best suited to these conditions and needs, and perpetuate it. Social conditions, however, are not constant and un-

changing, and what is respectable because it is needed may be quite different in 1960 from what it was in 1860 or may be in 2060.

The preceding statements are not intended to belittle the importance of tradition. We ourselves know that tradition has been of great importance in the development of American secondary education, and we think that American secondary education has made immense achievements. Tradition by itself, however, is a completely inadequate basis for educational or other types of social planning and we believe it may have been relied upon so much as to limit unduly experimentation with newer and promising programs of secondary education.

Control by external agencies. Earlier chapters described the controls exerted over secondary education by various external agencies. Here we may well review very briefly certain ways in which these controls make for uniform curriculums. First, the acts of state legislatures and regulations of boards of education that prescribe subjects to be taught, time allotments, and similar specifics obviously cause decided similarities. Second, the standards for accreditation set by regional and state accrediting agencies have tended to make for similarity in class size, length of period, school facilities, and many other items that directly affect the curriculum. It should be noted that accreditation standards have been generally liberalized and made more flexible in recent years, primarily to reduce unfortunate instances of uniformity. Third, the admission requirements of colleges and universities are typically reflected in secondary schools by the subjects offered, and even required by lack of alternatives in smaller schools. Fourth, the efforts of various special-interest groups to have a great number of subjects taught in schools do influence legislation, textbook authors, and curriculum planning, although these influences are difficult to isolate and enumerate.

These various controls, and others not enumerated here, have introduced many practices that make for efficiency and goodness in the program of secondary schools. Without some of these influences there would undoubtedly be hopeless confusion as well as greater inequality in secondary education. However, it is our belief that teachers, citizens, and local board of education members need to be continuously alert to possible inroads on their freedom to plan and carry out programs of secondary education uniquely suited to the youth in their schools and communities. Regulations and standards that encourage but do not restrict sound educational planning are of great importance.

Curriculum guides and materials. Another source of both similarities and differences in school programs is curriculum guides (courses of study) and materials, such as textbooks. In one state the department of education may issue a course of study that prescribes minutely the topics and schedule for teaching a subject in local high schools. In another, and fortunately this is much the more common practice, the

state guide may merely suggest materials and procedures for local faculties to utilize in their own curriculum planning. Similarly, in one school a particular textbook may be followed from cover to cover, while in another the teachers may select for pupils' study only those portions which are appropriate to their progress. Thus, the major source of uniformity or local initiative in regard to curriculum materials lies in the faculties themselves. Teachers who wish to experiment with promising practices can generally do so regardless of course of study or textbook, although they may experiment more advisedly and freely if they have help from curriculum guides and some freedom in the choice of textbooks and other materials.

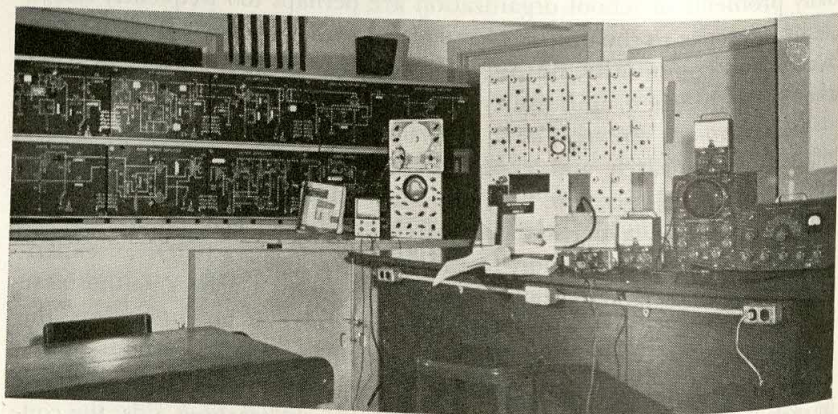
School organization. The administrative structure of secondary schools is considered in detail in Part Six. Here we should note in summary fashion the various influences of school organization toward uniform curriculums. First of all, the organization of schools by grades sets a pattern of some similarity in all schools. However, there is still wide variation in the grades included in different secondary schools, and these variations result in curriculum differences noted below. Second, the general practice of departmental organization in secondary schools tends toward uniformity in the subject pattern of the curriculum. In most secondary schools employing several teachers in each of the same broad fields, these teachers usually constitute a *department* and one of them is designated as *department head* (see Chapter 19). Although this pattern makes for efficiency and good planning, it may also tend toward perpetuation of the *status quo* in curriculum organization and toward imitation of the teaching practices of the same department in other schools. Third, many problems of school organization are perhaps too frequently solved not by reference to the unique characteristics of a particular student body, faculty, and community, but by reference to prevailing practice in other schools. Again, then, uniformity by imitation results.

Educational research and experimentation. Although the greater influence of research and experimentation has been toward desirable common practice, there are here also some undesirable tendencies toward uniformity. Thus, a particular research conclusion may be accepted as valid for a school population to which it does not apply. Or an experiment found effective, perhaps largely because of teachers' enthusiasm, may be imposed on another school where there is no interest on the part of the faculty. However, we believe that far more important contributions have been made toward sound than unsound practice by research in such fields as the nature of learning, the use of teaching aids, the construction of school buildings, and the organization of boys and girls in classroom learning situations. Chiefly to be regretted is the fact that some of these researches, especially those on teaching and learning, have not been put into practice in all secondary school classrooms.

TOWARD DIFFERENCES

The following major factors seem to foster differences in the programs of secondary schools: educational purposes, wealth, size, the community setting, educational experimentation, and school leadership. The effects of these factors in making secondary schools unlike are reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Educational purposes. Although many educational purposes are similarly interpreted so universally as to make for the uniformity we have noted, there are also instances of purposes leading to marked differences in the curriculum. For example, the purpose of development of the individual to his fullest potential leads to a great variety of provisions for individual differences. The extensive offerings of elective courses, the large number of school activities, and the varied programs of studies leading to different fields of specialization are characteristic provisions in larger high schools. The significant point for present purposes is that the electives, the school activities, and the fields of specialization frequently differ from school to school. We should also note that a minority, but still a substantial number, of secondary schools are organized to serve one major purpose only. Thus many private schools and some few public schools exist as "preparatory schools," making no effort to provide terminal courses but, instead, devoting major, almost exclusive, attention to college preparation. Many large public school systems have also established vocational or trade schools whose primary purpose is job training. Similarly, military academies, tutorial schools, and certain de-



Technical Education Requires Highly Specialized Facilities. This electronics laboratory section shows equipment required for two students working with the instructional demonstrator in the background. (Courtesy of the Miami Technical High School, Miami, Florida.)

nominal schools give major emphasis to a single educational purpose.

Even with regard to the purposes more or less universally accepted, major differences occur in implementation. Thus in some schools citizenship education is interpreted as involving only courses in American history and other social studies, while in another it is considered to involve the entire school organization including student government, clubs, and classrooms. One of the striking characteristics of American secondary education is the freedom which individual schools generally practice in implementing purposes to which all subscribe. Although this characteristic means that some schools may achieve purposes better than others, it also means that schools are not forced to provide programs ill-suited to their students, faculties, and communities.

Financial support. We have observed that no single factor seems quite as closely related to the school's program as its financial support. Some of our secondary schools in wealthy suburban communities may spend ten times as much per pupil as other schools in poor communities and states. Without adequate financial support, schools simply cannot provide the expensive facilities required for many features of a desirable secondary school program. We do not believe that a similar level of support for all secondary schools would make for uniform programs, but we do know that great disparities in support make for great differences. If all schools could afford as expensive programs as the wealthiest now afford, it is our own guess that they could also afford sufficiently resourceful leadership to develop programs uniquely suited to the pupil populations and communities involved.

Size of school. Somewhat related to the factor of financial support is school size. In general, the poorest schools, financially, are small rural ones. It is in these small, poor schools that the lack of adequate facilities for a varied curriculum makes for a highly limited program, frequently for youth whose entire experience has already been too limited. Even in some communities which can and do expend as much per pupil as their larger neighbors, the curriculum may be limited because of the prohibitive per pupil costs of expensive facilities and small teacher loads for courses that enroll very few pupils. A real effort is made by many of the small high schools, as illustrated by the program of one shown in Table 31 (pages 322 f.), to provide a full program of studies through use of alternating courses and correspondence studies, but they simply cannot match the breadth of program of the larger center.

We should also note that there is curriculum poverty of another sort to be found in the very large high schools. Schools with several thousand students enrolled—and we have many of these schools in our large cities—can never provide the closeness of pupil-teacher relations, the counseling which comes from intimate acquaintance, the friendliness

and informality of smaller schools. Probably the optimum-size school is one large enough to have a full program of studies in all major areas, and at the same time small enough to escape the "institutionalization" of the largest. Unfortunately the United States has hundreds of thousands of boys and girls enrolled in schools that are either too small or too large.

The community setting. In addition to its size and wealth, the community has many other characteristics which may make its secondary school unlike others. The preponderant racial and religious factors, the general level of income and standards of living, the extent of formal education of adults, the chief occupations of the community, the usual recreational interests of youth and adults, the attitudes toward family life, the participation of citizens in civic affairs—all these and other characteristics are usually to be found reflected in the life and program of the secondary school. Chapter 14 will describe some of the ways in which the secondary school curriculum is related to the community. In general, we ourselves believe that the best school programs are indelibly stamped by the communities in which they are found. Hence as communities differ, so do we expect to find good school programs different. But, as noted by the previous illustrations, the actual programs of studies may be much the same.

Educational research and experimentation. A comment has already been made on the influences, both good and bad, toward uniformity exerted by educational research and experimentation. This factor also results in at least two types of tendencies toward differences. In the first place, the dissemination and implementation of research are very slow processes. For example, modern scientific knowledge about the nature of individual differences has been available in increasing amounts for over thirty years, but we still find being widely followed unrelated practices which were in vogue fifty or more years ago. As some schools implement research conclusions and others do not, sharp differences appear between these schools. In the second place, schools which are themselves carrying on research and experimentation to improve their programs inevitably adopt practices which are different from those of schools not carrying on such studies. And even among themselves schools which experiment find different approaches to the same problem and thus develop different programs.

Educational leadership. Many of the differences among schools are best explained by the quality of educational leadership. Farsighted, imaginative, dedicated schoolteachers and principals may be expected to develop programs of secondary education vastly different from those directed by persons content to follow tradition and to ignore the pressing problems of pupils and community. If the people of a community could choose the one factor most likely to assure better schools than other communities of similar size and wealth, we are confident that they

would ask for the best professional leadership available to staff their schools. Such leadership may be counted upon to choose among all the influences toward similarities and differences in school programs we have discussed, those influences which assure a curriculum suited to the needs of their student and community populations. The greatest of all needs in secondary education is the need for more able and professionally interested young men and women who with open minds and sincere desires for youth will make teaching their profession.

Educational Purposes and the Curriculum of Secondary Schools

This chapter has noted frequently the existence of two somewhat different strands of the program of studies in secondary schools, in fact, of the total curriculum. One strand is the common subjects. Nearly all students throughout the United States take about the same subjects, for at least half their program. There are also many other instances of uniformity in the total curriculum offering. This stems from the basic purpose of secondary education: to provide a common body of experiences related to the common needs of adolescents. This common body of experiences we think of as *general education*. The other strand is comprised of variables in the program of studies and other curriculum aspects. About half of the subjects taken by youth are not identical in listing, although a majority of the students do follow a pattern of specialization which is preparatory to further study. But others specialize in business subjects or industrial training or agriculture or some other area. And other students do not follow a program that is definitely cut to one pattern but explore various lines of interest, perhaps seeking some eventual choice of a specialized program. These curriculum provisions, which vary somewhat according to the specialized needs, interests, and aspirations of youth, we consider as *specialized education*. Thus the curriculum of secondary schools is devoted to the two major purposes of secondary education: to meet the common needs of our society and its youth, and to meet the specialized needs of youth for their own personal fulfillment. Subsequent chapters will describe in more detail the curriculum provisions for each of these major purposes.

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10

Critical Issues in Relating the Curriculum and the Needs of Pupils

The survey in Chapter 9 of what the high school curriculum includes showed a wide range of curriculum practices in American secondary schools. Every major and almost every minor change in the curriculum has been produced by the belief of one or more persons that the new practice would better meet the needs of boys and girls than did the old one. Since all the people who influence curriculum change do not interpret the needs of youth in the same way, it is inevitable that diversity in practice occurs. This chapter will analyze some of the agreements and disagreements regarding the needs of adolescents, and the resulting issues that teachers face in relating these needs and the curriculum more closely.

What Are the Educational Needs of Adolescents?

Ideally, the curriculum of a secondary school would be planned by determining the educational needs of its enrollees and then by arranging experiences expected to fulfill these needs. But this is a difficult, time-consuming job, and there is so much disagreement and confusion over the needs to be planned for that planning is rarely done so systematically. Instead of working through studies of youth needs, members of the usual school faculty, even in a newly organized school, simply adapt to their situation the curriculum pattern of similar schools. Then, as needs for new experiences and the absence of need for existing experiences are discovered, curriculum changes are introduced. That is, a faculty does not go about planning a curriculum in terms of educational needs as a family plans a new house in terms of family housing needs. Curriculum

planning is nearly always a remodeling process, and sometimes just a maintenance job.

ISSUES IN DEFINING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF ADOLESCENTS

Below are stated some of the major issues which arise in attempts to define educational needs for purposes of curriculum planning.

On what types of needs should the curriculum be based? Several issues are related to this question. First of all, what is a need? Is it what an individual thinks he needs, or what somebody else thinks he needs? Is it what he needs, by whomever determined, for the immediate present or what he needs at some future time? As we ourselves see it, an educational need is a personal or cultural requirement of youth which can be met by the school. Thus, a need is individual or cultural in origin, but individual and cultural needs accepted for curriculum planning purposes must be mutually compatible. These needs must all be appropriate to the possibilities of the school. For example, youth require sleep but the school is not the appropriate place to meet this requirement! Also, they require economic support, but in our culture this is primarily a family and not a school responsibility. But preparation for one's own economic support is an educational need toward which the secondary school can contribute.

Who should determine educational needs? We have already shown how educational needs have been determined by philosophers, educators, legal and extralegal authorities, and others who have sought to interpret the personal and cultural needs of youth. But these influences may be lost sight of by a faculty struggling with a perplexing curriculum problem. Consider, for example, one faculty whose members had given considerable study to the boys and girls who dropped out of school before graduation. Most of the faculty members had become convinced that many of these pupils would have stayed in school longer if a work-experience program (perhaps four hours a day in school, four at work) had been available to them. Such a program was inaugurated the following year, but very few pupils enrolled in it. Some pupils and their parents said they did not need to learn to work in school, even that they did not need to work; others said they wanted to get all the schoolwork they could and then go to work full-time. Some businessmen and board of education members felt that the school was not in its proper territory when it began to sponsor work experience.

Who should determine educational needs, the teacher, the pupils and parents, the businessmen, or the board of education? Rightly, we believe, no one group has the exclusive responsibility here. Certainly, teachers

should be able to generalize upon the studies of youth needs well enough to expect the school to provide some type of prevocational experience. Certainly, also, they should be able to study their particular population so as to identify individual pupils needing work experience or other curriculum adaptations. Further, however, they should consult with such pupils and their parents, and with whatever laymen might be involved, to secure further insight into the needs of these pupils. And whatever changes in the curriculum really affect its general pattern should be formally adopted by the official group responsible to the public, the board of education.

Some attempts to relate youth needs and the curriculum have fallen short because educators have neglected to give parents, pupils, and laymen a chance to help in the processes of study, planning, and criticism. Others have missed the mark because they were instigated by pressure groups, were never accepted by teachers, and were made mandatory by official bodies. Even the major approaches to relating youth needs and the curriculum described later in this chapter have fallen into these difficulties in some communities. Thus, subjects and activities are introduced only to be unsuccessful because proper determination of their functions by the people concerned was originally lacking; the core curriculum has been criticized in some situations because even teachers failed to understand it; and school-college relationships are not improved whenever one group seeks to impose its conceptions of youth needs on others.

How can we differentiate between common and individual needs? Some theorists would recognize only the needs actually "felt" by individual young persons. If this type of planning is followed to its ultimate conclusion, common needs would exist in a particular group only if all members "felt" the same need at the same time. Another theory would consider as individual only needs that arose from unique characteristics of a particular individual; common needs, in this belief, would be pure coincidence. Still another point of view would classify as the needs of youth all persistent life problems of human beings that are experienced or anticipated by all young persons, and consider as individual needs the incidence of these problems to particular individuals.

This last conception seems to provide the most satisfactory basis for curriculum planning, although it obviously gives considerable weight to the needs of youth that are created by the impact of society on the individual. Under this concept the need to make a living would be regarded as a common need of youth, because it is a persistent life problem that is experienced or anticipated by almost all young persons. To one person this need may come early and acutely because of lack of family

income; to another it may be a vague concern of the future of which the student is sufficiently aware to feel some need to choose a vocation. One pupil needs to learn typing and shorthand because she plans to go into office work immediately after graduation from high school, and another wants as much mathematics and science as possible because he expects to go to engineering school. These are individual instances of the occurrence of the common need to make a living.

How can we distinguish between needs for general and specialized education? We ourselves do not find any accurate dividing line between needs for general education and those for specialized education. The need to make a living, for example, can be and usually is met by both general and specialized education. The only convenient and defensible differentiation is in the two programs. "General education" is primarily concerned with the skills and understandings that will best enable all young persons to solve common life problems. A program of general education is therefore defined by analysis of persistent life problems and of the skills and understandings needed by all young persons to solve these problems. Thus, skills of communication are known to be needed by all people. Students vary in the extent of their need for and attainment of such skills, but there is a common framework for all of experience in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. "Specialized education," on the other hand, is primarily concerned with the skills and understandings that will best enable the individual, in the light of his own interests and capacities, to solve life problems involving special competencies. Thus, some pupils may become interested in journalism as a career and plan extended experiences in this field.

All youth need understanding of work, of various occupations, and of specialization itself, and a common framework of general education could provide opportunities for all youth to acquire these understandings. However, the need to make a living also presses nearly every individual, in terms of his interests and capacities, to specialize in some vocation, and his vocational training is specialized education. Therefore, any broad common need may be met in part by general education, which sets up a framework of skills and understandings for young persons to acquire in terms of their individual needs; and in part by specialized education, which provides specific training programs for individuals in terms of their individual interests and capacities. For this reason, the need for, and nature of, specialized education may be greatly affected by the quality of the general education program, that is, by the provision made in general education for identifying and exploring special interests and capacities. Hence the point may be defended that specialized education is not opposed to, but actually is an outgrowth of, general education. The real distinction is between the common framework of general

education for all youth and the individualized pattern of specialized education of many types, each type to serve a relatively small group of students with similar interests.

Can needs be anticipated in curriculum planning? An extreme position in educational philosophy holds that curriculum planning must be done "on the spot," that is, with and by a particular group, since the specific needs of individuals vary according to the person, the time, and the place. This position really denies the validity of most studies of the needs of youth, because these studies show clearly that certain basic needs are common to all young persons at all times and in all places. We ourselves, however, are as thoroughly in disagreement with the position at the other extreme, namely, that all needs of youth can be met by a prescribed program of instruction in certain required subjects. The most defensible position is that a general curriculum framework can and should be planned around the known common needs, with a high degree of flexibility and experimentation possible in the use of this framework. Because of differences in environmental conditions and social factors, curriculum experiences should vary greatly from locality to locality.

IDENTIFYING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF ADOLESCENTS

Two major procedures are available to the secondary school faculty or individual teacher interested in identifying needs as a basis for curriculum planning. One is to review the available studies and other publications dealing with adolescent needs, and the other is to make analyses directly of the pupil population concerned. Each procedure will be considered below, the discussion being closed with a check list of educational needs which we believe secondary school groups might find helpful in their curriculum planning.

USING ANALYSES OF NEEDS MADE BY OTHERS

For the reader's convenience as well as to emphasize the curriculum implications of recognized youth needs we are reproducing at this point two listings we have found especially helpful. One, an analysis of developmental tasks, the needs in personal-social development that an individual must satisfy if he is to be secure and happy, was made by Havighurst and associates:

1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes
2. Accepting a masculine or feminine social role
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence

6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation
7. Preparing for marriage and family life
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior¹

The other is the list of ten imperative educational needs first stated by the Educational Policies Commission in the publication entitled *For All American Youth*, and stated and illustrated by the accompanying figure, taken from the National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth*.

MAKING STUDIES OF PARTICULAR PUPIL POPULATIONS

A number of procedures are available to the secondary school faculty interested in analyzing its pupil population. First, data may be compiled regarding whatever items in the pupil and community populations are considered as significant, these data being reviewed by the faculty to identify implications for the school program. For example, the *Evaluative Criteria* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards provides forms for compiling the following data:

- I. Basic Data Regarding Pupils
 - A. Enrollments and Graduates
 - B. Age-Grade Distribution
 - C. Mental Ability
 - D. Stability
 - E. Withdrawals
 - F. Educational Intentions
 - G. Occupational Intentions
 - H. Follow-up Data of Graduates
- II. Basic Data Regarding the Community
 - A. Population Data for the School Community
 - B. Occupational Status of Adults
 - C. Educational Status of Adults
 - D. Financial Resources
 - E. Rural Pupils
 - F. Distribution of Tuition Pupils

¹ See Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1953), Chaps. 9-11, for an analysis of these developmental tasks which Havighurst says may arise "from physical maturation, from the pressure of cultural processes upon the individual, from the desires, aspirations, and values of the emerging personality, and they arise in most cases from combinations of these factors acting together" (p. 5).

G. Agencies Affecting Education

H. Additional Socioeconomic Information ²

A second procedure which is followed by many faculties is that of follow-up studies of school-leavers and graduates. The most common type of follow-up study is that made to determine what students do after graduation. Among the data which may be secured from such studies to help in curriculum planning are the following:

1. Various items concerning college adjustment and success, such as marks, social activities, special interests and honors, and disciplinary records, which help in planning the preparation of other youth for college
2. Estimates by employers of graduates' success on the job, which give information relative to the success of planning for vocational preparation
3. Information concerning various aspects of graduates' post-school living such as leisure activities and family life, which may be considered in planning the program of general education
4. Information from graduates or others about the continuation of interests they pursued while in school, for consideration in planning special-interest phases of the high school program
5. Survey of graduates' difficulties in various particulars, such as communication skills, social adjustment, and military service, in connection with studies of specific youth needs.

Another type of follow-up study is that of youth who drop out of school. Studies of dropouts are usually concerned with determining the reasons why youth leave school. In many individual schools, such studies are frequently very illuminating as to the failure of curriculum planning to provide for educational needs. As we showed in Chapter 2, national studies have been impressive even through showing the number of youth who do leave school before completion, and thus raise serious questions about the real universality of "universal" secondary education. Some of the techniques of these studies might be used by any curriculum planning group desiring evaluative information from learners who have left school. Two major difficulties in getting data should be noted: (1) the problem of locating these dropouts and getting them to respond to inquiries; and (2) the problem of securing reliable information. Both difficulties may be partially met through the use of interviews rather than questionnaires. "Exit interviews" with dropouts are frequent, for example.

²Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria* (Washington, D.C.: The Study, 1950), p. 19.



1 All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.



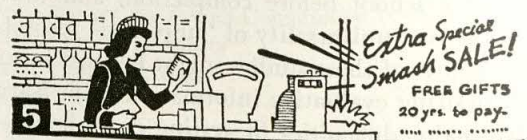
2 All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.



3 All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.



4 All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.



5 All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.



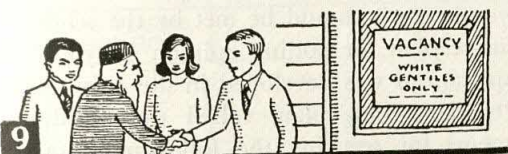
All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.



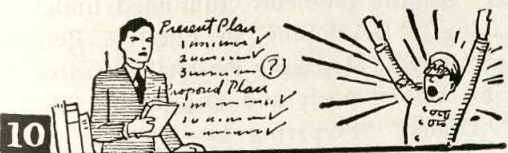
All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.



All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.



All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others.



All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

Figure 9. The Imperative Needs of Youth.
(From *Planning for American Youth*, rev. ed.,
National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1951, p. 9.)

Although more difficult to arrange, follow-up interviews also may be desirable. The kinds of information available from dropouts have valuable implications for curriculum planning: Why did they leave? What kinds of occupational choices did they make? What bearings did their previous schooling have on their post-school employment? What kinds of school experience do they wish they had remained for?

An interesting series of follow-up studies in California high schools was compiled a few years ago in the publication of the California State Department of Education entitled *Now Hear Youth*. Some 13,000 youth who had attended California high schools and junior colleges (most had graduated) were included in the various studies. Illustrative of the curriculum implications of such studies and interesting as to the opinions of this particular population are the estimates of the extent to which the schools helped on fourteen items relating to educational needs. Figure 10 presents these data.

Opinion polls represent a third procedure that may be very useful in determining needs of particular youth populations. Polls of pupil, teacher, parent, and lay opinions may give very helpful evidence regarding the total program of an individual school. Although such polls give information that needs to be consulted in curriculum planning, as usually constituted they appraise the status of the curriculum rather than its underlying purposes. But faculties may, and do, design simple questionnaires for parents and others that inquire whether the respondents think certain youth needs should be met by the school. A widely used, and comprehensive plan for polling opinion on youth needs and their curriculum implications was developed in the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program. This plan, called the "Follow-up Study," included instruments for securing the following data:

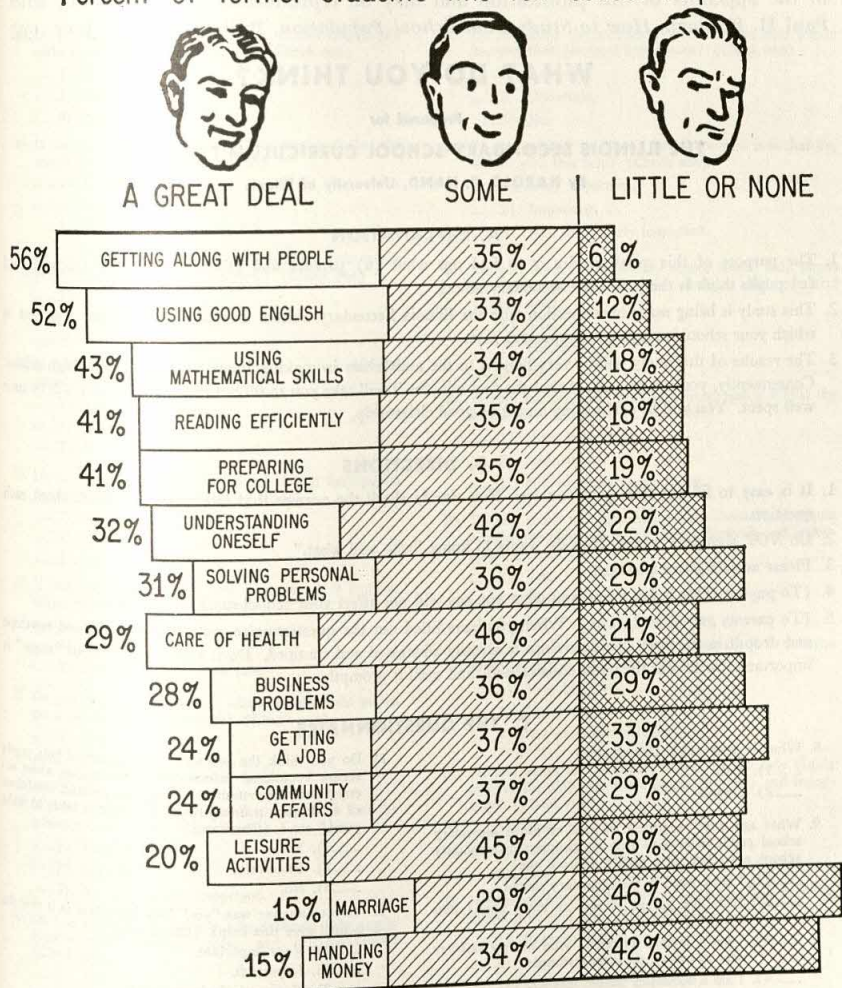
1. The opinion of teachers, pupils, parents, and "non-parent" patrons as to whether the secondary school should help youth on each of their fifty-six "real-life problems" subsumed under the headings of "Earning a Living," "Developing an Effective Personality," "Living Healthfully and Safely," "Managing Personal Finances Wisely," "Spending Leisure Time Wholesomely and Enjoyably," "Taking an Effective Part in Civic Affairs," "Preparing for Marriage, Homemaking, and Parenthood," and "Making Effective Use of Educational Opportunities." If the respondent answers affirmatively to the first question, he also is to give his estimate of how important this help is. The first page of the instrument "What Do You Think?" used to collect these data is reproduced on pages 356 and 357 as Figure 11, to illustrate the method.

2. Estimates by teachers of the extent to which members of the last graduating class received the help they needed on the fifty-six problems

3. Information from graduates as to

- The extent to which graduates are experiencing the fifty-six real-life problems
- The extent to which graduates felt they received from their high school the help they needed on the fifty-six problems

Percent of former students who felt school helped



NOTE: "Uncertain" responses ranging from 3 to 10 percent in the various categories are not shown.

Figure 10. Preparation for Life Activities. (From William H. McCreary and Donald E. Kitch, *Now Hear Youth*, A Report on the California Co-operative Study of School Drop-Outs and Graduates, California State Department of Education, October, 1953, p. 21.)

- c. The effectiveness with which graduates feel they are meeting the fifty-six problems.³

³ See Kenneth B. Henderson and John E. Goerwitz, *How to Conduct the Follow-up Study* (Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 11; Springfield: Superintendent of Public Instruction, August, 1950) for a complete description of these procedures. The questionnaires used in the study appear in the appendix of this publication and may be reproduced. Also see in this series, Paul H. Bowman, *How to Study Your School Population*, Bulletin No. 26, June, 1957.

WHAT DO YOU THINK?

Prepared for

THE ILLINOIS SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM PROGRAM

By HAROLD C. HAND, University of Illinois

A. EXPLANATION

1. The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out what (a) parents and other laymen, (b) teachers, and (c) pupils think is the job of the secondary school.
2. This study is being made in connection with the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, a project in which your school is playing an important part.
3. The results of this study will be very helpful to the authorities in making improvements in your high school. Consequently, you can be assured that the few minutes it will take you to fill out this questionnaire will be time well spent. You will be performing an act of good citizenship.

B. DIRECTIONS

1. It is easy to fill out this questionnaire. You simply check the answer that tells what you think about each question.
2. Do *NOT* sign your name. Nobody wants to know "who said what."
3. Please answer *every* question.
4. (To pupils) This is *not* a test, and what you say will not affect your school marks in any way.
5. (To parents and other laymen) When you have filled out the questionnaire, put it in the enclosed envelope and drop it in the mail. This envelope is already addressed and stamped. Do it *now*, please. Your "story" is important. So fill out the questionnaire *now*, and mail it promptly.

C. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

8. What is your sex? (Check one)
 -1). Male
 -2). Female
9. What are you: a parent of one or more secondary school pupils, a layman with no children in secondary school, a teacher, or a pupil? (Check one)
 -1). I am a pupil in the secondary school.
 -2). I am the parent of one or more pupils *now attending* secondary school.
 -3). I am a layman (citizen) who has *no children now attending* secondary school.
 -4). I am a secondary school teacher.
 -5). Other. (Tell what.....)
10. If you are a pupil, in what grade are you at the present time?
 -1). 7th Grade.
 -2). 8th " "
 -3). 9th " "
 -4). 10th " "
 -5). 11th " "
 -6). 12th " "
 -7). Other. (Tell what.....)
11. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils secure vocational information (information about occupational opportunities, supply and demand, conditions of work, pay, training required, "what it takes to make good," etc.? (Check one)
 -1). Yes.
 -2). Uncertain.
 -3). No.
12. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
 -1). Very important.
 -2). Important.
 -3). Not particularly important.
13. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils discover their vocational interests and abilities? (Check one)
 -1). Yes.
 -2). Uncertain.
 -3). No.
14. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
 -1). Very important.
 -2). Important.
 -3). Not particularly important.

Any faculty, we believe, might adapt the procedures just described for securing relevant opinion regarding youth needs to be met by the school. Perhaps only the "What Do You Think?" type of study need be made to initiate thoroughgoing evaluation of the curriculum in relation to people's opinions as to the needs it should serve.

15. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils make a wise occupational choice? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
16. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
17. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils prepare for their chosen vocations? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
18. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
19. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils develop good work habits? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
20. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
21. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils get a job and make good in it? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
22. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
23. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils acquire good manners, poise, and self-confidence? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
24. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
25. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils improve their personal appearance? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
26. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
27. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils learn how to control their emotions and conduct? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
28. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
29. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils acquire the ability to speak more effectively and enjoyably? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
30. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
31. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils acquire the ability to write more effectively and enjoyably? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.
32. If your answer was "yes," how important is it that the school give this help? (Check one)
.....1). Very important.
.....2). Important.
.....3). Not particularly important.
33. Do you think the secondary school should help pupils acquire the ability to read more effectively and enjoyably? (Check one)
.....1). Yes.
.....2). Uncertain.
.....3). No.

Figure 11. What Do You Think? (Reproduced by permission of Professor Hand.)

A CHECK LIST OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

To serve as a starting point for teachers interested in thinking and studying through the needs approach to curriculum planning, we are presenting in Table 35 a brief check list of educational needs of adolescents, adapted by us from the listing reproduced in Figure 9. This list may be useful in such ways as the following:

1. For an individual teacher to study in order to crystallize his thoughts about adolescent needs in relation to the curriculum.
2. As the basis of a discussion regarding the topics treated in this chapter.
3. As a first step in faculty evaluation of the program of a particular school.

TABLE 35

How Are We Meeting the Educational Needs of Adolescents?

ADOLESCENTS NEED EDUCATION FOR:	DO WE PROVIDE FOR THIS IN:				
	THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES?	EXTRACLAS ACTIVITIES?	COMMUNITY EXPERIENCES?	GUIDANCE SERVICES?	OTHER MEANS?
1. Adequate communication skills including reading, writing, speaking, listening, and use of numbers and number concepts					
2. Adult activities as homemakers, citizens, and consumers					
3. Use of effective problem-solving and learning processes					
4. Understanding of the world and man					
5. Choice of and skill in appropriate aesthetic and recreational activities					
6. Maintaining good health and physical fitness					
7. Choice of an occupation and preparation for further related study and/or occupational training					

4. As a starting point for a group of teachers, prospective or in service, desiring to prepare their own check list as a basis for discussions and evaluations of the school program.

Careful development of such a list of needs should be based on thorough study of the purposes of the school (see Chapter 6). For purposes of analysis we have brought together in this listing (Table 35) our own condensation of various statements of educational purposes and objectives relative to high school youth. Each faculty should develop its own list from study of such materials as reviewed in Chapter 6 and from such studies of its student populations as suggested in the present chapter.

Major Issues in Planning the Secondary School Curriculum

Some ten major issues which confront secondary school educators in the last half of the twentieth century are indicated in this section, which will attempt to state and illustrate the issues, to indicate alternative positions that teachers might take, and to describe some of the recent efforts to resolve the issues.

WHAT IS THE UNIQUE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

Increasingly in the 1950's laymen and educators were discussing the issue of whether the secondary school had assumed too much responsibility for the total development of adolescents. Some educators and leading critics of the American high school contend that the school has accepted responsibilities that do not properly fall within its province, and has undertaken functions that tend to militate against the proper discharge of its primary responsibility. These critics claim that the secondary school has become anti-intellectual; indeed, that it has fostered anti-intellectualism among the boys and girls of America by its undue attention to purposes that should be served by other educational and social agencies. Particularly is there criticism of the school's assumption of responsibility for recreation of youth, for social activities, for physical development, and even for some specialized education.

Other leaders are more constructively critical in their position on this issue. Thus, a distinguished historian, Henry Steele Commager, suggested at the 1957 conference on secondary education at the University of Chicago that "the school no longer bears the heavy responsibilities in the non-academic realm that it did in the nineteenth century, that it now shares with many other agencies responsibilities for non-academic educational activities, and that it is in a better position to devote its

attention to what we may call academic functions than ever before."⁴

This issue becomes a very real one to the high school teacher confronted with many responsibilities in addition to those associated with usual classroom teaching. The teacher who gives his time to sponsor clubs, to advise children in out-of-school hours on their personal problems, to chaperone social affairs, and to assume many other responsibilities that do not directly relate to intellectual training, may well agree with these critics. Nevertheless, many teachers have believed that they could not neglect the education of the whole child. Those on this side of the issue point out that children and youth have many needs that must be considered in the educational program. It is believed, for example, that pupils who are not in good emotional or physical health cannot acquire academic learnings most successfully until attention is given to their health. It is also believed that children who are poorly adjusted in their relationships with others cannot learn satisfactorily. Teachers who accept the more complete responsibility for their pupils believe that by working with children individually, and with their parents, they can do a better job of teaching.

We ourselves believe that these latter points are in general well taken, and that sound teaching must include consideration of the student as an individual. Frequently a good teacher has to go far beyond the mere checking of academic learning to find ways and means of reaching a pupil successfully. On the other hand, we recognize that many secondary schools, in their efforts to meet the needs of all pupils, and to provide well-rounded programs, have perhaps dissipated some of the energies of teachers with the wide range of responsibilities thrown on them. Teachers, too, must be well adjusted, and their own mental and physical health needs have to be considered in the educational program. Teachers who must devote many hours and much of their attention to sponsoring extraclass activities, as well as to working with poorly adjusted children, frequently are not able to give needed time to preparing for their classes and to perfecting their techniques of instruction.

The critics of modern secondary education, particularly with reference to the current issue, have derided the schools for their emphasis on "life-adjustment education." These critics point out that life adjustment is too ambitious a goal for the secondary school and that many social agencies must participate in the life adjustment of boys and girls. However, the many statements of educational aims resulting from the work of various commissions and committees throughout the history of American secondary education give a clear indication of the general move-

⁴ Henry Steele Commager, "A Historian Looks at the American High School," in *The High School in a New Era*, Francis S. Chase and Howard A. Anderson (eds.) (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958), p. 9.

ment toward a broad approach to education. All such statements of objectives with which we are familiar define the basic function of the school in terms of the life activities of the individuals comprising our society. In fact, there has been some movement in secondary education during the twentieth century to reorganize high schools as "community

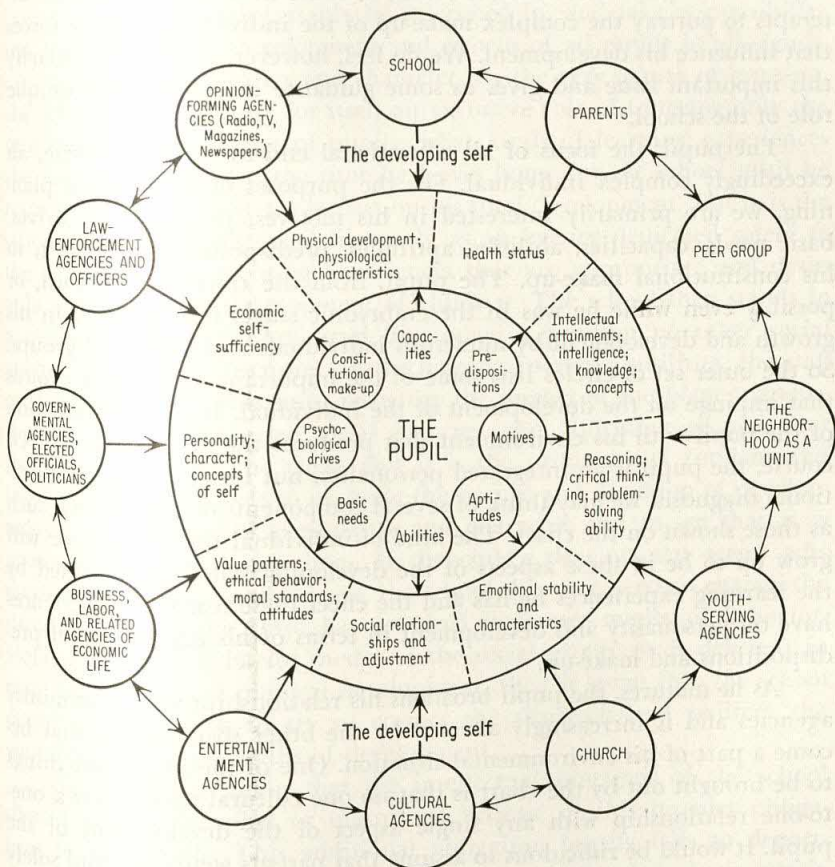


Figure 12. Factors Influencing the Development and Character of the Individual.

schools" as a step toward meeting students' need for help in the problem of induction into community life. This emphasis has included the development of various types of adult education programs; the expansion of the curriculum to include vocational courses that are directly related to occupations of the community; the organization of service activities designed to improve recreation, social work, health, and other phases of community life; and enrichment of the curriculum to include study of the community and use of community facilities. Schools which have

become more "community-centered" have accepted a rather large responsibility for the total development of students and even for the improvement of general community living. The tendency toward establishment of such schools seems to have declined during the 1950's.

In endeavoring to resolve this issue, we find the chart depicted in Figure 12 helpful. The chart is crude, as must be any diagram that attempts to portray the complex make-up of the individual and the forces that influence his development. We do feel, however, that it helps clarify this important issue and gives us some guidance in defining the unique role of the school.⁵

The pupil, the focus of all educational endeavor, is, of course, an exceedingly complex individual. For the purposes of educational planning, we are primarily interested in his motives, psychological drives, basic needs, capacities, abilities, aptitudes, predispositions—in short, in his constitutional make-up. The pupil, from the time he was born, or possibly even while he was in the embryonic stage, is influenced in his growth and development by numerous individuals and organized groups. So the outer set of circles lists some of the important agencies or groups that impinge on the development of the individual. It is the interaction of the pupil with his environment that produces the developing self. Of course, the pupil is an integrated personality, but for purposes of educational diagnosis, we may think of several components of personality, such as those shown on the chart. The kind of individual the pupil is, or will grow up to be in these aspects of the developing self, is determined by the learning experiences he has and the effect these learning experiences have on personality and development in terms of his constitutional predispositions and make-up.

As he matures, the pupil broadens his relationships with community agencies and is increasingly affected by the other social forces that become a part of his environmental situation. One of the important things to be brought out by the chart is that no one cultural agency has a one-to-one relationship with any single aspect of the development of the pupil. It would be ridiculous to assume that parents were fully and solely responsible for the personality development of the individual, for such development is also affected by the peer group and by many other agencies. Similarly, it would be unrealistic to assume that the school affected only the intellectual development of the child, for, as we all recognize, the whole child goes to school and his personality, his value pattern, his

⁵ A very interesting and somewhat similar analysis of the factors affecting the development of the individual is to be found in Bernard J. Siegel, "Models for the Analysis of the Educative Process in American Communities," in George B. Spindler (ed.), *Education and Anthropology* (Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1955), pp. 38-49.

emotional development, his social relationships, his physical development, and all other aspects of development inevitably will be affected by what occurs in school, regardless of whether the school deliberately and overtly plans for such effects or not.

Our own position on this issue can now be stated more explicitly. The school, as the institution established by society for the education of boys and girls, must inevitably be interested in, and take responsibility for, the direction of development and growth of all pupils in all significant aspects of personality and character. By the very nature of learning, the school cannot define for itself an exclusive role of fostering only the intellectual development of pupils; what kinds of learning experiences the youngster has from the time he leaves home for the school until he returns home will have an impact on his total development. But it is the school that is established deliberately as an agency dedicated solely to the supervision of learning experiences that are appropriate and desirable for the proper development of children. The school then stands in a unique position in American life today: a position no other social agency of any kind occupies. In discharging its responsibilities, the staff of the school inevitably must recognize the impact of the home, parents, the peer group, organized social agencies, and also other groups, over the development of the child. But it is the primary and fundamental responsibility of schools to evaluate the nature and direction of development in all aspects of personality and character and to see that it is proceeding along proper lines. If the child's development seems adequate and normal in all aspects, the school does not need to change the situation, but if the child has acquired improper modes of behavior, violates accepted behavior modes of the social group, or is deficient in emotional, social, or physical development, then it seems that the school ought to take steps to try to correct the situation and redirect the youngster on proper paths of development.

We emphasize again that the intellectual functions of the school should not be curtailed or minimized because of this broader obligation to the pupils. This additional obligation largely falls to departments of guidance and counseling; for this reason, they have been greatly expanded in the twentieth century. If society determines that it is not the proper function of the school to assume such broad responsibilities for the growth and development of children, then society should set up other agencies to assume them. But in practically no community in this country do such other agencies exist; hence it is our view that the school must inevitably accept such responsibilities at the present time in American life. The primary concern of society is for boys and girls, and it must endeavor by one means or another to direct their development so that it will be wholesome, adequate, and in keeping with the basic moral

codes of American life. The school has a definite responsibility in this connection.

SHOULD THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS SERVE ALL YOUTH?

Elsewhere this volume related the struggle of the American high school to become a school universally attended by youth of high school age. The triumph of education in this connection was signaled by the appearance in 1944 of the volume by the Educational Policies Commission entitled *Education for All American Youth*. The fact that almost 90 per cent of youth of high school age are now enrolled in our schools indicates that we have almost, but not quite, actually achieved universal secondary education in the United States. Nevertheless, in the 1950's many critics of secondary education raised a question as to whether it was appropriate for the high school to attempt to provide an education for all youth of secondary school age. In some communities, critics of the inadequate job the high schools were purported to be doing argued that compulsory education was to blame. Some would reduce the age of compulsory attendance and others would work toward the elimination from high school of boys and girls who did not achieve a satisfactory standard. Of course, for many years, there has been a feeling, even on the part of high school teachers, that boys and girls in high school who wasted their time or who, because of lack of ability, failed in the academic subjects should be shifted to vocational types of programs or to institutions other than the public secondary schools. Dropouts and work permits, of course, have partially achieved the objective that these persons seek.

Chapter 3 noted that some critics of the alleged "anti-intellectualism" of the high school would introduce into American secondary education the practice of uniform examinations at a relatively early age so as to eliminate from the academic high school program those who could not meet arbitrary standards. In effect, this issue is simply a revival of the continuing struggle over universal secondary education in the United States. In our own judgment, we would be moving backward very greatly in the democratic tradition of American education if secondary education were deliberately denied to American youth, regardless of their ability or socioeconomic status.

Teachers are confronted with this issue many times during their planning for secondary school youth. The teacher who believes that the secondary school program should be highly selective, and does not actually accept universal secondary education, can find many ways of discouraging boys and girls from continuing their careers in high school. By rigorous examinations and high standards of grading, by failure to give special help and attention to slow-learning pupils, and by similar

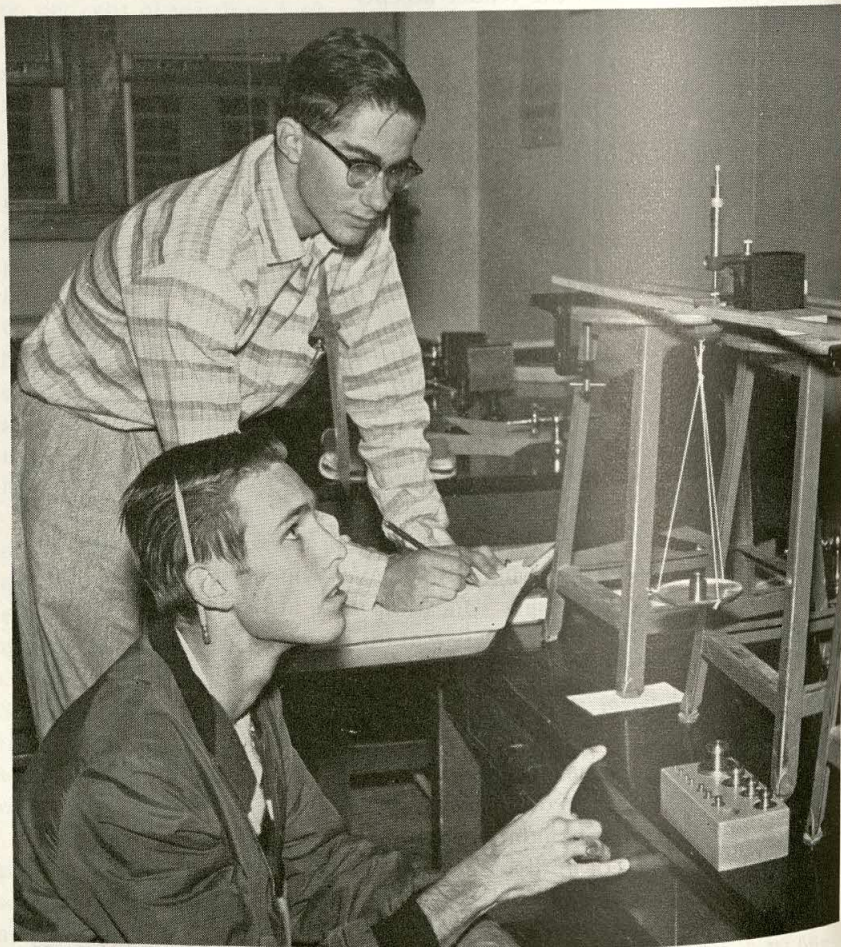
methods, they can discourage pupils from continuing in school. The fact that many are discouraged is affirmed by the attrition rate of our high schools. On the other hand, teachers who firmly believe in universal secondary education, and wish to see all boys and girls remain in school until completion of grade 12, find many ways of planning for these youth. They encourage boys and girls to find programs which are appropriate to their abilities and interests. They attempt to challenge and aid the students in their classes, and, in general, are willing to adapt their instructional program to the wide range of students within the high school. Which philosophy does the reader accept?

The dominant philosophy of secondary education in the United States has been toward providing secondary education for all youth. That we have failed is indicated by the fact that only about 60 per cent of youth do graduate from high school. We have, nevertheless, been unique among the nations in the world in providing for the great majority of American youth some period of secondary education. In order to keep all secondary youth in school, our curriculum has been greatly modified from the traditional, selective curriculum of the nineteenth century and which still characterizes the educational programs of some foreign nations. Because we were attempting to find programs suitable for all youth in our secondary schools a great number of subjects and activities have been added during the twentieth century. Enrollments in 16 subjects were reported on by the United States Office of Education in its report for 1895, and in 274 subjects in the report for 1949.

Because of our interest in serving all youth, great attention has been given to the reasons that youth drop out of high school. Many high schools have broadened their programs to provide better guidance services, to include work experience for those who need to work, and in other ways to make secondary education more attractive to the youth of America. In fact, much of the curriculum change, experimentation, and, at times, reorganization in the twentieth century has been a reflection of the affirmative answer that most educators have given to the issue under discussion. If we believe that all youth, except those incapable of learning anything beyond the simplest rudiments, or those too psychologically disturbed to be permitted to associate with other pupils, should complete a program of secondary education, then the program must be adapted to a variety of abilities and motivational and aspirational levels. So the question really becomes; Should we endeavor to develop a program of secondary education in this country that will be worth the time and effort of all youth to remain in school? To us the answer is yes. The future of our democracy depends on it. We may need some bold new patterns in secondary education to accomplish this objective, but our destiny as a nation calls for such efforts.

HOW CAN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAM BE MADE EQUALLY CHALLENGING AND SIGNIFICANT TO PUPILS WHO DIFFER SO GREATLY?

There is widespread recognition today of the fact that children and youth differ very greatly in their physical, social, emotional, and intellectual traits, and at the same time are alike in many respects. Research from various fields documents these facts. Something of the range of differences in the secondary school population has already been pre-



Physics Is a Challenging Study for Many Youth. Well-equipped science laboratories and well-trained teachers in science can provide many challenging and significant experiences for boys and girls. (Courtesy of the Albuquerque, New Mexico, Schools.)

sented in this book. The entire problem of providing an education suitable to the widely varying talents of adolescents is probably the most serious one now facing secondary education in America and undoubtedly the most difficult one to solve properly. Certainly this is a problem that is recognized by every high school teacher, for in the same class he frequently finds as many as eight levels of reading ability, for example, and similar variations in many other abilities. With the wide differences in background, in previous experience, in socioeconomic status, and in all of the related factors, it is little wonder that the American high school is about as inclusive of all of the differences of people as are to be found in the total population of our country.

Many educators and citizens alike feel that the secondary school program and instructional procedures have been geared to the great mass of pupils of average ability. Thus it is maintained that the high school has neglected to provide a proper program for superior and talented pupils. It is frequently claimed that gifted pupils are not challenged intellectually, that the program planned for the mass of pupils is not always the most appropriate for the superior pupils, and that present practices in the high school permit, may even encourage, the superior pupil to waste time, to develop slovenly habits of work, and to become satisfied with mediocre efforts. Some critics also point out that slow-learning students are frustrated in the academic program of the high school and do not receive an education suitable to their needs. The widely criticized "life-adjustment education" movement was initiated, it may be recalled, by the Prosser Resolution, which pointed out that some 20 per cent of high school students were served very well by college preparatory programs and another 20 per cent by the vocational education programs, but that the remainder—60 per cent—were not served well at all by the secondary school. Although "life-adjustment education" has never been satisfactorily defined and has not been well accepted, at least in terminology, the fact is that a great many boys and girls in high schools are not provided for adequately by the program which exists.

On the other hand, proponents of modern secondary education point out that the secondary school of the 1950's had achieved great success in providing many types of educational experiences that did suit the needs of a wide range of interests and abilities. After all, the American secondary school has given substantial citizenship education to the majority of our youth population. It has also provided further training in skill in communicating; it has given many young people who never would have received such advantages elsewhere opportunities to become better adjusted socially, and to make, at least for their period of secondary education, contacts with young people of other backgrounds and experiences. Many educators and citizens agree that the secondary school

has perhaps done more than any other social agency to provide for the development of democratic skills and improved human relations. Thus the presence of a wide range of individual differences in the schools has served a useful purpose even though it has made problems for teachers.

Secondary school faculties and individual teachers have attempted to solve the problem of individual differences by a great variety of means. Many of the curriculum changes made in the secondary school have been developed as approaches to this problem. In addition to specialized educational opportunities for the handicapped and for the gifted, secondary schools have introduced such innovations as core curriculum, work-experience programs, and many special services in the schools. Basic in the core curriculum plan is the idea of a longer period of time with a single teacher, who uses the more intimate and extended contact with individual youngsters to teach them better. This program is described in some detail in a later chapter. Work-experience programs received considerable impetus during the depression of the 1930's and World War II, but declined somewhat during prosperous years in the 1950's. Basic in the work-experience program is the fact that many youth need job training and orientation and some income for continuing their education.

Special services are now widely provided in secondary schools in recognition of the wide range of individuals who attend the schools. These special services include a variety of guidance services, social case work, clinical help, placement, and special opportunities for the gifted and the handicapped. It should also be noted that many administrative provisions have been made for individual pupils. The entire elective system of classes and activities is itself directly due to our educational philosophy of serving individual pupils according to their needs and interests so far as compatible with the social aims of education. As noted repeatedly here, each addition to the list of subjects and activities represents an effort to satisfy better the need of some group of pupils. In addition, homogeneous grouping of students is used in some instances as an effort to make a better provision for groups of different abilities, achievements, or interests. Administrators also make program adjustments for individual students and work diligently to provide facilities and materials adapted to a variety of pupil ability.

More direct means of meeting the needs of individual boys and girls vary from the personal help a teacher gives one pupil to the administrative practices in scheduling which set up special programs for individual pupils. Effective classroom teaching includes maximum attention to the individual needs of pupils, and many high school teachers find sound ways of dealing with the range of individual differences in their own classrooms.

Despite these many developments in American education to provide for the differences in young people who attend the schools, there is great dissatisfaction with the current programs. Teachers seek help in their classroom problems of teaching each individual effectively—problems that become more clearly recognized and pressing as the individualities of learners are understood. Parents in many communities gravely criticize the failure of the school to provide challenging programs for their youngsters. On every hand there is the concern for a more challenging and efficient program for gifted children. Education is simply caught in the dilemma of having more information about the existence of differences than about how to provide equally well for these differences in all situations. We ourselves do not feel that there is a single answer to this major issue. Undoubtedly the high school can provide even better than it has for the individual differences of the young people who are enrolled in it. We do not feel that organizing special schools and classes is an adequate answer to the problem. Neither do we feel that strict adherence to heterogeneous grouping and a system of elective classes will guarantee adequate provision for individual differences. Some combination is undoubtedly necessary—a combination that will include creative classroom teaching which provides well for a maximum number of pupils, special opportunities for children who really need them, and perhaps some type of specialized grouping in certain curriculum areas. We shall have more to say about these possibilities as we consider other problems, for many of today's critical curriculum issues relate very closely to this major matter of planning a curriculum that challenges and yet serves equally well pupils who differ so greatly in abilities, potentialities, needs, motives, and aspirations as do the youth who attend the secondary schools of America.

HOW CAN BALANCE BE MAINTAINED IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

The problem of maintaining a balanced curriculum has been with secondary schools almost since their inception in America. Indeed, the academy was developed in the eighteenth century in part to provide a more balanced curriculum for the children of that era. Later the public high school was established for the purpose of providing a broader curriculum. Similarly, throughout the history of secondary education there have been many studies, proposals, and new practices designed to produce a better distribution of emphases on various purposes of the secondary school. See the proposed curriculum pattern for balance in "American City" in Figure 13.

The issue took on a new significance in 1957, when the advent of

Periods per day	GRADES						Advanced Secondary School or Community Institute	
	Early Secondary School							
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Personal Interests Exploration of personal abilities and individual interests; discovery of interests in art, music, science, languages, sports, crafts, home and family problems, and leisure activities.			*Individual Interests Election by the pupil under guidance of teacher in fields of avocational, cultural, or intellectual interest.				
2				Vocational Preparation Includes the study of sciences, mathematics, social studies, literature, and foreign languages, in preparation for advanced study in Community Institute, college and universities, as well as education for industrial, commercial, homemaking, service and other occupations, leading to employment, apprenticeship or homemaking at end of grade 12, 13, or 14, and work experience.				
3								
4								
5								
	Common Learnings A continuous course in Social Living to foster growth in personal living and in civic competence.							
6	Health and Physical Fitness Includes games, sports, and other activities to promote physical fitness, together with the study of individual and community health.							

*Broken line indicates flexibility of scheduling for youth who need to spend more time in either

of these areas, depending upon their occupational or future education plans.

Figure 13. The Curriculum in "American City" Is Divided into Five Major Areas. (From *Planning for American Youth*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, rev. ed., 1951, p. 48.)

the Russian Sputnik aroused great alarm in many Americans, who felt that our nation should provide more scientists and engineers to compete in the race for intercontinental missiles and space satellites. During the months which followed, many public statements were made by national figures, by critics of the schools, and by educators themselves as to the necessity for greater emphasis in the high school curriculum on science and mathematics. Some of these were cited in Chapter 3; here it will be merely noted that this was a very significant, but still just another, instance of pressure to bring about a change of emphasis in the high school program.

During recent years we have heard particular criticisms about the imbalance of the high school curriculum with regard to four areas which,

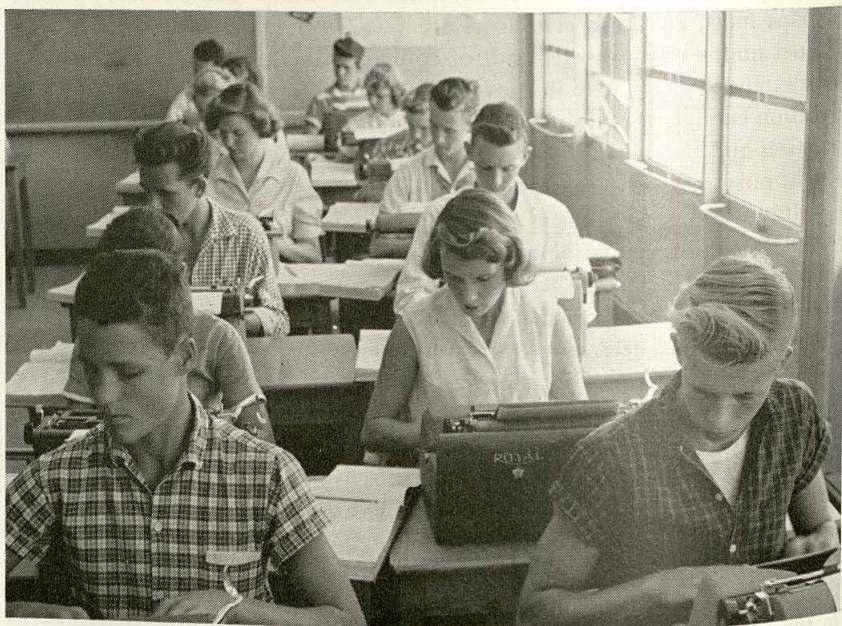
according to the critics, are emphasized erroneously. The first area is science and mathematics, training in which is needed to produce more scientists and engineers. The second area is "anti-intellectualism." The sources of this criticism have been quite varied, but there have been a very large number of articles, newspaper editorials, and other public statements relating to the alleged "anti-intellectualism" of the American high school. A third area has been the failure of the schools to develop proper appreciation of the American heritage. This, too, has come from many sources: business leaders who have decried lack of attention to private enterprise; patriots who have been concerned that the schools teach more about American patriotism and nationalism; and citizens in general who have criticized the schools for their failure to develop proper understandings of American history, geography, economics, and politics. A fourth area, and one on which the schools have been widely attacked—is their failure to teach all pupils adequate skills of communication. Probably no criticism of the schools has been so generally shared by college professors, businessmen, employers, and the general public as that of the inability of many high school graduates to read well, to spell correctly, to write legibly, and to compute accurately. Undoubtedly many, perhaps most, of these criticisms are based on experience with a very limited number of persons and, of course, with the less able youth who have attended high school. Nevertheless, these criticisms add up to justification enough for high school teachers to examine very critically their practices and their programs to ensure rigorous attention to such widely sought outcomes as these.

It must be noted that as some individuals and groups see in the high school curriculum lack of attention to science and mathematics, to intellectual training, to the American heritage, and to skills in communication, others are viewing with alarm a decline of emphasis on history and the social studies, literature, and foreign languages. Still other individuals and groups press legislatures and boards of education to make driver training compulsory, to extend programs of physical education, to ensure fitness for military service, and to enlarge the vocational education program. Other individuals and groups, sensitive to the increasing number of early marriages, invoke the schools to provide systematic preparation for family life. And so it goes: the high school curriculum has been, and is perhaps more than ever, a battleground for all the individuals and groups in American life who seek to promote some particular emphasis in the training of youth. What, under the circumstances, are the high schools to provide in the way of a balanced curriculum?

This issue is a very real one to the high school teacher. As he seeks to counsel young persons about the choice of courses to take in high school, he must take a point of view as to the relative importance of

various studies offered. As he makes decisions with other members of the faculty and administration as to electives to be eliminated or dropped, as to courses to be required for graduation, as to the length of courses, and the like, he must have a point of view as to the relative importance of various emphases in the program. And even as he prepares to teach in a particular field, in deciding how much of this topic and how much of that topic to include each day, it is essential that he be guided by a philosophy of what constitutes the balanced curriculum.

We ourselves find no easy and brief answer to the series of issues which really relate to this central one of balance. We do believe, however, that the issue becomes more understandable when viewed in historical perspective. As already suggested, the struggle to provide a balanced curriculum has been almost continuous in the history of the secondary school program. For most of our history in secondary education the central controversy has been over making the curriculum "practical." At one time, neither science, mathematics, English, nor American history was considered quite respectable in the secondary school curriculum. Later, vocational education had to fight its way into



Typing Is a Very Popular Newcomer in the Curriculum. Many pupils believe that learning to type is as important in their education as any other communication skill. (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

the school program. At other times, the extraclass activities which now are considered as contributing to the imbalance of the curriculum were brought in on a very controversial and piecemeal basis. Similarly, the pendulum has swung in regard to most of the program of studies as analyzed in the previous chapter. We do not feel that the program of studies as it exists in American high schools, or that the enrollment in the various subjects on a national basis, is adequate evidence for conclusions as to the balance, or lack thereof, in the high school program. These data simply represent states of compromises that have been reached between the various conflicting forces operating on the secondary school curriculum.

The problem of balance, we believe, must be approached from two different bases. In the first place, balance really exists only with regard to the individual pupil. The individual pupil's program is balanced, in our opinion, when he has the combination of subjects and activities, during his school years, which contribute maximally to his becoming an effective person. For one individual this undoubtedly means a great amount of purely intellectual development, with considerable emphasis on the more difficult studies in high school. For another individual it may mean a minimum of general education programs and a maximum amount of experience in prevocational subjects. For another, it may mean concentrated attention to developing basic skills which have not been learned prior to the period of secondary education. For many, balance requires a great deal of counseling and persuasion, for the individual student may not be in a position to make his own choices as to courses to take in the high school program. Perhaps one of the factors which does contribute to imbalance for many individual students is the large elective offering from which students choose on bases other than what is really best for them. It is to be hoped that the extended discussions of the issue of balance may result in more careful screening of elective courses and more careful counseling of individual students.

The second approach to balance has to do with the issue of general and specialized education. We firmly believe that the high school must provide a minimum program of education to meet the common needs of boys and girls of high school age. We also believe that it should provide adequate opportunities for specialized education to serve the highly individualized needs of these young people. Some decision must be made by high school faculties as to the scope of each type of program, and as to the bases on which individual pupils will be guided into the specialized educational opportunities. The remaining chapters of Part Four are devoted to an extended consideration of general and specialized education.

TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD THE CURRICULUM BE UNIFORM?

Closely related to several of the foregoing issues is that of uniformity in the curriculum. Uniformity has several dimensions: first, the extent to which pupils in the same school should have the same curriculum; second, the extent to which schools in the same system should offer the same program of studies and activities; and third, the extent to which all high schools in the United States should offer the same program. We believe that the first issue has already been adequately considered in this chapter, and that the second is closely related to the issue (grouping) which follows. As to the third—the possibility of uniformity of curriculums throughout the United States—we have already noted certain tendencies toward and away from uniformity as practiced in many other countries of the world. Although in American secondary education there has been marked similarity in the program of studies, there have also been wide variations in requirements, in enrollments from school to school, and in the types of activity programs developed within individual high schools. We believe that this lack of uniformity has been one of the strengths of the American school system, much as it invites criticisms from those who would have great centralization of education and uniformity in curriculum matters.

Some leading critics of American education have proposed that we should adopt systems of selective examinations and uniform programs of study similar to those in certain European countries. This could bring about the destruction of secondary education as we have known it in the United States. Should our people and their representatives decide that secondary education is to promote only academic training in a limited number of curriculum areas and that those who cannot succeed should be eliminated from the program, we would need to abandon or amend our laws of compulsory attendance, reconstitute and reduce our teaching personnel, and provide for national control, at least of examinations and curriculum, of the secondary school. We ourselves do not believe for one moment that this is the will of the American people and trust that secondary education, however changed, may exist as universal secondary education in the United States.

HOW SHOULD PUPILS BE GROUPED FOR INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES?

Most of the recent controversies over secondary education have centered on the general question of how to organize schools and classes so as to provide best for the individual differences of youth. Grouping by grades, of course, is used universally among both elementary and second-

ary schools. Although there have been conflicting points of view as to whether secondary schools should include grades 7 through 12, grades 9 through 12, grades 9 through 14, or some other arrangement, no one has questioned fundamentally the organization of pupils by grades. The issue arises in connection with the arrangements within the graded school organization. Specifically, teachers and others who plan the high school curriculum are faced with four problems related to the basic issues of grouping for instructional purposes. Each of these is discussed below. It should be noted first, however, that underlying each of these problems is the general issue of whether we should discriminate in American secondary education between pupils as to their abilities and other characteristics. Some educators have contended that there should not be discrimination other than in the selection of courses according to interests and perhaps future needs, whereas, especially in the recent controversies, many other educators have argued that we should have a definite separation of students according to their intellectual abilities. The application of these conflicting points of view is indicated in regard to the specific issues cited below.

Specialized versus comprehensive schools. In many large school systems some grouping of pupils by schools has occurred. For example, vocational or technical high schools are provided in many cities, and in some of these the vocational program itself may be subdivided into specialized trade schools. In these and in some other school systems there are also high schools which are predominantly college preparatory in their emphasis. Some of these schools may be designated by the school administration as college preparatory high schools and have a relatively selective admission policy. More frequently a school has a student body that is predominantly college-bound because the city is zoned so that the school draws its student body from that kind of population. At the same time, also because of the section of the city they serve, other schools may be largely composed of pupils with relatively little interest in college preparation.

Some educators and laymen have persistently argued that there should be an increase in the number of schools serving specialized purposes. Such proposals as have appeared in recent years are primarily concerned with the segregation of intellectually gifted pupils from other pupils, by setting up either separate schools or a separate unit within a high school.⁶ As we shall explain further in Chapter 13, most of us who are concerned about the total development of American youth believe

⁶ H. G. Rickover, *Education and Freedom* (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1959), Ch. 11; Paul Woodring, *A Fourth of a Nation* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957); and Arthur Bestor, *The Restoration of Learning* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955), Chap. 21.

that the introduction of a plan of segregated schools would destroy the foundation of the American system of secondary education. The contributions of the comprehensive secondary school to the realization of the American dream are so universally recognized that surely the American people would not permit our system of universal secondary education to be sacrificed on the altar of expediency. James B. Conant, the distinguished former president of Harvard University, shares this enthusiasm for the American comprehensive high school and believes it offers the best approach to a solution to the problem of adapting instruction to the varying capacities and needs of pupils.⁷

Heterogeneous versus homogeneous grouping of pupils in class sections. In small high schools having only one class for each subject, the issue of grouping sections does not arise, but in today's large high schools, with many sections of such basic subjects as English, mathematics, social studies, languages, and science, teachers and administrators are faced squarely with the question of how to assign pupils to sections. Grouping of pupils according to ability has been carried on for many years in some high schools. Many of today's critics argue that this practice should be greatly extended. They would have pupils grouped according to ability in almost every subject in which there is more than one class. The proposals for extended use of grouping relate again to the great concern for the education of gifted children. Most plans for providing special opportunities for gifted pupils, as have plans developed over the years for mentally retarded or other pupils with exceptional needs, bring pupils together for instructional purposes on the basis of intellectual ability or achievement levels in a subject field.⁸

Common practice in our high schools has generally resulted in a crude sort of grouping within the elective subjects. That is, pupils who elect subjects that will prepare them for college, such as advanced mathematics, science, foreign language, and English courses, are generally, but not always, of superior ability. Similarly, pupils who elect advanced courses in business education, home economics, industrial arts, and agriculture typically are not expecting to attend college, and may lack—but not necessarily so—intellectual abilities for pursuing some of the more rigorous subjects. Whether or not the students are grouped in the required subjects by ability or some other means is the decision of the local faculty. In general, we believe that sounder and more universal systems of counseling, which result in pupils electing wisely the subjects

⁷ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), Section II. Also see p. 475 in our Chapter 13.

⁸ A. Harry Passow, Jane E. Beasley, and Deton J. Brooks, Jr., "Adapting the Curriculum to the Needs, Capacities, and Talents of Individual Students," *Review of Educational Research*, 27:277-286 (June, 1957).

they will pursue, will provide for an adequate grouping in the specialized areas. As to grouping in the required or general education areas, we ourselves believe that the American high school has a distinctive function to perform in providing for social integration. We believe that complete segregation of pupils in all of their classes will defeat this purpose. Although it may be advisable to experiment further with grouping in certain skill subjects, such as mathematics, and to provide special opportunities for the highly talented students and the greatly deficient students, we would hope that a considerable range of interests, backgrounds, and abilities is available in most classes of the modern secondary school. (See pages 736 ff. for further discussion of this issue.)

Specialized versus general curriculums. In many high schools a type of separation of students has occurred in the choice of the program of studies. Especially in larger high schools, there have frequently been available such programs of studies as "college preparatory," "commercial," and "industrial." In some instances these programs or patterns may have been more numerous. In effect, the election of a program of studies designates the pupil's choice of a future career and tends to separate him from other students. However, so many subjects are required in all such programs of study in most high schools, that the labeling is somewhat incidental in the student's life. Of course, if the designation were done completely, with sections of the various classes organized so that a college preparatory student, for example, would have all of his classes only with other college preparatory students, the plan is basically one of having several schools within a school. This, we feel, merits all the objections, practically speaking, of the specialized high school system.

The designation of programs of studies can be used primarily as a guidance tool. In this connection it seems very useful. That is, it would seem important for counselors to have in their possession a rather definite list of courses that are commonly required in colleges or for employment in secretarial, sales, or industrial jobs. Undoubtedly, the counselors would need to explain to students at whatever time they must make a decision as to their post-high school plans, the requirements of their plans in terms of courses to be taken in the high school. We are inclined to agree with some critics of American secondary education who have called attention to the "cafeteria style" elective system. Undoubtedly there is need in the counseling process for much greater attention to the needs, capacities, and interests of students. Students and their parents should be helped to see the desirability of taking courses which are related to their future interests. Unfortunately, wise decisions are rarely reached by pupils as to their future careers early enough for counselors to be positive that they must take some courses and not others. The best

that can be hoped for is that the counselor will have studied the pupil's record on tests and in his classes, and be well enough acquainted with the individual and his background, to help the student select essential courses and not waste time with nonessential ones.

Subgrouping within classes. In general, secondary school teachers have used techniques of instruction employing small group organization within classes less frequently than have elementary teachers. Because we personally feel that this method of teaching offers a very superior way of dealing with pupils of varying needs within the same class, we devote considerable attention to it in Chapter 15.

There is relatively little controversy over the use of subgroups within classes. Those who espouse ability grouping by alternate sections tend to feel that the use of subgroups within classes in mathematics and English, for example, is an inadequate way of dealing with the problem. Perhaps the most severe critics of this type of grouping are within the teaching profession itself. The plain fact is that most secondary school teachers have been educated in large classes by teachers who did not employ small groups and hence have little conception of how to use this technique. It is to be hoped, therefore, that more and more high school teachers in all subject areas will learn to organize their classes into small groups for various purposes. This, we believe, will help resolve this issue of grouping for instructional purposes.

TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD THE HIGH SCHOOL COMPEL CONFORMITY OF PUPILS?

This is an issue that seems rather abstract and involved, yet we believe that it is one which should command earnest consideration. It appears at many places in the operation of the secondary school. Teachers must decide to what extent pupils should be forced to follow a particular program of studies, to adhere to a given set of rules of behavior, to "follow the crowd" in social relationships and dress, to perform stipulated homework assignments, and to abide by group decisions in classrooms and extraclass activities. The issue is sometimes considered to be that of "groupism" versus individualism.⁹ Educators and laymen alike are rarely consistent in their point of view about some of the questions related to the basic issue. For example, some of the very critics who con-

⁹ Although other writers have expressed some concern about the matter, David Riesman and William Whyte have written brilliantly on the subject. See Riesman's *The Lonely Crowd: A Study of the Changing American Character* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1950) and *Individualism Reconsidered* (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954), and Whyte's *The Organization Man* (New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1956).

demn the high school for its "anti-intellectualism," and decry the neglect of individual gifted children, would force these children into a particular pattern of subjects in high school. Also, some of the educators who advocate and practice methods of "group process" in the classroom vigorously oppose uniform homework assignments for their pupils.

Conformity in selecting the program of studies. We have already expressed considerable concern over the extensive elective system of American secondary schools. Undoubtedly there is reason to believe that in many large high schools, with their plethora of elective subjects, individual pupils may not be selecting the subjects which would best advance their educational aims and needs. At the same time, we find equally untenable the proposals of some persons that all pupils in high school confine their course selections to the academic subjects. If the United States is to continue to provide universal secondary education, there must be room for individual pupils to take subjects which are of value to them but of relatively little value to certain others. Our high schools have in general been attempting to resolve this issue by greatly improved and expanded guidance services. These services provide great help to boys and girls, as well as to their parents, in selecting high school subjects and activities which most nearly relate to these young people's educational needs and aims. It is to be hoped that future curriculum planning efforts will utilize more completely the services of persons in the guidance field. Undoubtedly the experience of guidance counselors and test specialists would help the average high school faculty and board of education very greatly in reaching decisions as to those courses that should be offered for all students and as to those that should be on an elective basis. Further, these services should give help and direction in deciding the bases on which pupils are to be advised in one direction or another. The ultimate problem, of course, becomes that of deciding what to do when a pupil, and/or his parents, refuses to follow the suggestions carefully arrived at by a guidance counselor. When such situations arise, there is little choice but to advise as fully as possible, to make certain that the pupil and his parents understand the alternatives, and then to allow them to make the ultimate decision. We believe that the instances in which decisions would be made contrary to sound advice, carefully explained, are far less numerous than those in which at present pupils are making decisions with very little, if any, guidance.

Conformity in matters of behavior. There has been widespread diversity of practice in this respect. Corporal punishment still prevails in some schools despite the evidence that, in most cases, it is of little avail. When one considers the types of delinquent behavior which occurred in New York City schools and were widely publicized in 1958, one wonders what type of punishment would have averted such criminal

behavior on the part of juvenile delinquents. Obviously, schools cannot be operated under conditions in which individual pupils are committing assaults on other pupils and on their teachers. The good of the entire group must make necessary the elimination of individual behavior which is inimical to human welfare.

Some critics of the schools have argued that "progressive education" has tended to encourage anarchical types of behavior in public schools. We ourselves have observed very little indication that pupils have misbehaved in school because of philosophies of progressive education. To the contrary, we do feel that traditional regimentation has sometimes produced rebellion and overtly delinquent behavior. It is undoubtedly true that a few lazy teachers may have taken the path of least resistance and allowed pupils too much freedom in their classrooms. But, by and large, the evidence is convincing that predelinquent and delinquent behavior on the part of boys and girls in school is a result of environmental conditions rather than of school programs and policies. Nevertheless, even though the schools themselves may have had no responsibility for creating such behavior, they are confronted with it in providing an instructional program. The general practice in secondary schools has been to have clear-cut rules and regulations and to expect a certain degree of conformity to them. This is a reasonable resolution of the issue and one to which we wholly subscribe.

Conformity in social relationships and aspirations. Adolescents, we know, are exceedingly anxious to have the recognition of their peers. The tendency on the part of most of them is to follow the patterns of behavior, of dress, of hair style, and the like, that are observed on the part of the "style setters" in high school. This tendency is emphasized, we believe, in those schools which have developed extensive social programs in the form of sororities, fraternities, or similar organizations having many of the characteristics of secret societies and similar tendencies toward the creation of social classes within the school. Although such organizations have generally been outlawed, there remain many schools in which they are given some encouragement. There should be established in high schools such patterns of organizational and social activities as will provide an opportunity for all boys and girls to have wholesome relationships with their peers. These relationships should not be marred, we believe, by pressures toward financial expenditures and social behavior which are inimical to the philosophy of free public education for all American youth.

Conformity in homework assignments. In many American communities, the issue of homework has assumed substantial proportions. Again, one finds great diversity as to the requirements and expectations of individual teachers and school faculties. On the one hand, some critics of

secondary education feel that homework requirements are generally too lax and do not provide sufficient challenge for boys and girls in school. Other critics, however, and frequently within the same community, object to the pressures on the children from the school and would have a greater proportion of schoolwork done at home. For many years in American secondary education the general trend has apparently been away from extended assignments to be done at home. Study halls and supervised study periods within classes have been efforts to provide good study conditions at school. Our observation of effective teaching in secondary schools indicates that good teachers do not rely on uniform homework assignments for their pupils. Although they do expect boys and girls to work on their assignments outside class, they also provide good study conditions at school. Furthermore, they attempt to differentiate between students sufficiently to provide homework assignments which are challenging for the able student as well as helpful to the less able. We definitely feel that this is the type of philosophy of homework which does not create undue conformity and undesirable study practices, and at the same time does create effective learning conditions.

Conformity in "group process." Techniques of group discussion have not been very widely introduced in the secondary schools. We shall note in our discussion of classroom teaching (Chapter 15) the dominance of the recitation type of procedure. In some classrooms, especially in the field of social studies, alert teachers have introduced procedures of discussion which encourage boys and girls to express their opinions, to consider evidence about issues under discussion, and to arrive at a consensus as to their resolution. Undoubtedly such procedures could be more widely and effectively used in those curriculum areas in which there is room for deliberation and sharing of opinions. On the other hand, even in these areas we would reject as undesirable any tendency on the part of teachers to force pupils to come to a consensus which violates the right of an individual to hold to an opinion about a matter for which he feels the evidence is inconclusive. One of the difficulties in the use of "group process," as adapted from the field of group dynamics, is the tendency to force members of adult groups to accept a point of view which they really have not explored sufficiently. It is to be hoped that in high school classes creative teachers will stimulate individual pupils to look very critically and thoroughly at issues and to arrive at opinions which represent their individual best judgment. Where evidence appears complete and conclusive, there, of course, should not be divergence of point of view. Furthermore, in instances in which a group is deciding an issue relevant to its own action, the democratic principle is that individual members of the group must abide by the decision of the total group.

Our emphasis here is on the point that individual boys and girls, even in high school, should learn the difference between group decisions which are binding upon the group, and group consensus which merely represents opinion. They should be encouraged in the former instance to participate vigorously in arriving at a group decision and then abide as vigorously by it; and in the latter instance to formulate their own views on as sound bases as possible, and then to abide by these views until they are proved erroneous.

ON WHAT BASES SHOULD PUPILS BE MARKED, PROMOTED,
AND GRADUATED?

This issue has been a very controversial one among secondary school teachers and administrators for many years. As the population of the secondary school became more representative of the entire population, it became increasingly difficult to maintain the same marking systems and achievement standards. The goals of the school itself became broader and more comprehensive. The older standards for academic success were inappropriate and impossible to apply rigidly if the ever-increasing proportion of youth was to be served fully and properly by the high school. Many teachers have persistently objected to changes in these standards, however, and in recent years many laymen and college educators have joined in to criticize roundly the high schools for "lowering standards."

It would seem reasonable to assume that standards of attainment for achieving the goals and objectives of the school should be geared to the capacities, talents, and potentialities of each pupil. This is consistent with our basic democratic traditions of respect for human personality. But in mass education such a policy is exceedingly difficult to administer. For example, if one hundred pupils are enrolled in ninth-grade English, should we establish one hundred sets of standards for determining whether pupils are achieving success in the course? If a common standard is set for all pupils either it will be so high that many pupils have little prospect of succeeding or it will be so low that superior pupils are not challenged to do their best. If many levels of standards are set in each subject offered in the high school, how can we determine correctly which set of standards an individual pupil should attain in order to receive a passing grade?

Corollary to this problem is the one of determining who should graduate from high school and be awarded a high school diploma. If only those pupils who attain a prescribed level of achievement should receive the diploma, what happens to other pupils who have achieved adequately in terms of their own capabilities but have failed to meet the predetermined standards? If any pupil who achieves adequately in terms of his

own capacities is granted credit for graduation purposes, what does the high school diploma represent? Should the diploma in fact simply certify that the recipient has done as well as could be reasonably expected in terms of his particular talents and abilities, or should it certify that certain prescribed levels of attainment have been achieved?

Many approaches have been made to resolving these issues. Chronological age or "social promotion" policies have not been nearly as common or as completely followed as some critics of the schools assume. Even in the school systems where children are promoted somewhat regularly despite poor achievement, the policy usually prevails only in the elementary schools. Nevertheless, one extreme approach to the problem is without regard to standards of achievement. At the other extreme, many schools have adhered closely to some set of fixed standards, and pupils who fail to meet these are not promoted or graduated until, if ever, the standards are attained. In between these extremes, one finds such compromises as two types of marks (one for "effort," and one for "achievement" relative to the standard). Also, two types of diplomas, one showing satisfactory achievement, and the other merely years of attendance, without comment on achievement, have been used in some systems. Many secondary school administrators have worked with local employers to persuade them to check with the high school from which applicants say they graduated and to get the actual records of these persons rather than assume satisfactory achievement simply because of graduation. Perhaps the soundest approach is the use of guidance procedures which result in pupils taking courses in which they are most likely to succeed, followed up by careful work with those who do not achieve up to capacity.

WHAT CONSTITUTES ADEQUATE COLLEGE PREPARATION?

The problem of school-college relationships has been a dominating influence in the development of the secondary school curriculum, as we have commented upon frequently in preceding pages. Many educators have believed that any fundamental improvement in the secondary school curriculum awaited a redefinition of what constitutes adequate college preparation. A major attack was made on this problem by the Eight-Year Study conducted, beginning in 1932, under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association. This study denied the claims for various subjects that for generations have been used to justify the domination of the high school curriculum by college prescriptions.¹⁰ Leonard's later review of various studies dealing with the relation of college success and college

¹⁰ See Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942).

entrance requirements concluded: "Clearly the assumption that college success depends on pursuing any prescribed subjects in high school cannot longer be accepted by thinking people."¹¹ It is equally clear, unfortunately, that the colleges and universities, and, indeed, the public in general, do accept the assumption! This point was definitely established by a 1949 review of a wide sampling of reports of researches dealing with factors related to scholastic success in colleges of arts and sciences and teachers colleges. This comprehensive review reached the following conclusions:

The data reveal that many colleges are basing their entrance requirements on factors which do not have adequate value in predicting success in college, and therefore deny entrance to many students who should be admitted. The absence of any significant correlation between amount and pattern of high school subjects and college scholarship persists in spite of the broadening of high school curricula to include vocational subjects and the reluctance of colleges to vary in a corresponding degree from the original scholastic curriculum heavily loaded with verbal training.¹²

All this evidence regarding the lack of validity of certain college entrance requirements has not revolutionized school-college relationships. However, interest in experimentation was undoubtedly encouraged by the Eight-Year Study and other researches. Many colleges modified to a considerable extent their entrance requirements. A significant move toward modification was the Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement, developed cooperatively by the colleges and universities and the secondary schools of that state:

The college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. This Agreement does not imply that students must be admitted to certain college courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation.¹³

In the 1950's, however, as the colleges began to prepare for the hordes of students expected in the 1960's and thereafter, many educators and citizens proposed that admission standards be made much more stringent than ever before. Criticisms of inadequate preparation in high

¹¹ J. Paul Leonard, "Can We Face the Evidence on College-Entrance Requirements?" *School Review*, 55:332 (June, 1945).

¹² Harley F. Garrett, "A Review and Interpretation of Investigations of Factors Related to Scholastic Success in Colleges of Arts and Science and Teachers Colleges," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 18:130 (December, 1949).

¹³ Leon S. Waskin, "The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 159), 33:51 (January, 1949).

school abounded. Little reference to such earlier experimentation as that just cited could be found in the proposals for specific college entrance requirements, for limiting enrollments to students with advanced rank in their high school classes, and for organizing college-preparatory curriculums and schools.

There has been further experimentation on admission to college, much of it in recent years subsidized by the Ford Foundation. In one study, carefully selected high school pupils, most of whom were between the ages of fifteen and a half and sixteen and a half, and who had not completed high school, were admitted to colleges which agreed to participate in the experiment. The program was an effort to speed up the educational process, so that most of the students could complete their general education by the age of eighteen or nineteen, and then be ready for professional college or military service.¹⁴ In another study¹⁵ a group of colleges agreed to grant college credit to graduates of a few selected high schools who had taken in high school one or more courses that had been especially designed to cover the subject matter of introductory college courses, provided the pupil successfully passed an examination in the subject given by the college. In the first experiment intellectually gifted young students left the high school before graduation and took much of their liberal education at the college; in the second, the pupils remained in the high school but took liberal arts studies comparable to college courses, thereby shortening the time spent on general education in the college.

Although its sponsors have applauded the results of the early-admission program,¹⁶ it has won few adherents among secondary school people. However, the possibilities of offering college-level courses in high school have had a very favorable response and many secondary schools and colleges are developing such programs. In terms of the influence exercised over secondary school offerings by the colleges, the issue under present consideration, it is plain to see that both of these studies increase the measure of such control, particularly the School and College Study of Admission with Advanced Standing. In the fall of 1956, the College Entrance Examination Board assumed responsibility for preparing and administering tests for granting advanced standing, and such tests are available for any college to use. High schools will obviously be under

¹⁴ The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *Bridging the Gap between School and College* (Evaluation Report No. 1; New York: The Fund, 1953), Chap. 5.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, Chap. 4, and "What Are the Features and Implications of the Experimental Program Which Permits High School Students to Enter Colleges with Advanced Standing?" *North Central Association Quarterly*, 30:360-366 (April, 1956).

¹⁶ The Fund for the Advancement of Education, *They Went to College Early* (Evaluation Report No. 2; New York: The Fund, 1957).

increasing pressure to offer courses that will enable their college-bound students to prepare for these examinations. If such a course of action represents the *best* program of education for each individual pupil interested, well and good, but such practices will tend to increase the adoption of a narrow concept of education on the part of many secondary schools. If the staff first clearly and unequivocally establishes a valid set of objectives for secondary education, and then evaluates such procedures in terms of what contribution they may make to the attainment of these objectives, secondary school pupils will not be denied the best education possible; if the faculty is narrow in its point of view about education or subservient to the demands of college professors who may have little understanding of the problems involved in providing universal secondary education, then such secondary schools will indeed surrender their historic role in a democratic society.

One thing is clear: The problem of college-school relations remains one of the great unsolved issues in American education today. Until more adequate research is done on this problem, and in order to develop a relationship in which research can be fostered and its results implemented, such articulation is to be sought as was recommended in 1958 by the Joint Committee of the School-College Relations Committees of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers and the National Association of Secondary School Principals:

Secondary schools and colleges need to get better acquainted. Such devices as principal-freshman conferences, high school-college visitation, and conferences between college admission officers and high school counselors are currently successful techniques. Much is also being accomplished through more systematic and complete reporting from colleges to high schools in such matters as informing the school of action on applications for admission, informing the school when the student enrolls in the college, and sending college grade reports to the school. Only by a better understanding of each other can colleges and secondary schools hope to avoid gaps in the total educational program.¹⁷

ARE THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS ADEQUATELY FINANCED?

The issue of adequacy of financial support is raised somewhat less frequently than the others in current discussions of secondary education. Probably there is fairly general agreement that the secondary schools must have more support if they are to achieve the broad purposes attempted in the past. On the other hand, it is clear that many critics feel the purposes should be narrowed, and one suspects that in some cases tax-saving ideas might be involved in these feelings. It is true, too, that

¹⁷ Joint Committee, *Report No. III*, 1958, A Summary of Conclusions and Recommendations Resulting from the Joint Meeting Held in Chicago, January 10-11, 1958.

articles and public statements have occasionally criticized high schools bitterly for their "country club" atmosphere and facilities.

We ourselves believe that the most critical of all issues confronting the American people is this one of financial support. Any reasonable estimate of adequate support for a good program of secondary education in every community for *all* its youth confirms the need for drastic increases, on the average and without provision for "country club" facilities, for teachers' salaries, school buildings and facilities, and the essential staff services and program facilities to provide differentiated offerings suitable to the needs of all the youth who now attend secondary schools. There seems no real issue as to whether America can afford these increases; rather, it seems a matter of many complicated problems as to how the funds can be provided: whether by federal aid, increased state support, heavier local taxes, or some combination of these. To this issue our citizens must turn their attention if, out of all the controversy over improving secondary education, fundamental improvement is to occur.

The Teacher's Role in Relating Pupil Needs and the Curriculum

After reading this chapter thus far the prospective secondary school teacher may have the feeling that the job of relating the curriculum to youth needs is beyond his responsibility. Certainly the job is a challenging one and certainly it requires the effort of administrators, boards of education, laymen, and professional and legal groups. But the real challenge is to all who teach, for it is they who must ultimately make a satisfactory adjustment between the pupil and the curriculum. Through their curriculum planning, their classroom teaching, and their counseling of pupils, teachers can do a great deal to make this adjustment. In concluding this chapter, we wish to point out certain specific ways in which teachers can relate the curriculum and adolescent needs.

THE TEACHER SHOULD STUDY ADOLESCENTS AND THEIR NEEDS

Teachers who really understand teen-age boys and girls seldom try to cram learnings into those who neither can nor should absorb them. The teacher who rarely sees Johnny as a person with needs and problems all his own pushes Johnny into unprofitable and unhappy learning experiences. Sometimes, in fact, very frequently, the teacher has so many pupils to teach and so many tasks to perform that it is very difficult for him to know very much about Johnny as a person. This is unfortunate, but it can be compensated for somewhat by the teacher's own study of the problems of adolescence which makes him recognize readily the symptoms of Johnny's difficulties.

We believe it highly desirable for every beginning secondary school

teacher to have had some course in adolescent behavior or psychology and especially to have had some firsthand experience working with adolescent boys and girls. Perhaps his only contact of consequence with adolescents will be in his student teaching; if so, it is all the more important for the teacher to utilize this opportunity for firsthand study of individual pupils as well as for study of the characteristics of the high school population in general.

For most successful teachers the college courses in adolescent behavior and even in student teaching were purely introductory to their most significant studies of adolescent needs. These studies are made as teachers seek to understand why particular pupils behave as they do. Perhaps the teacher who becomes conscious of his need to understand boys and girls better can participate as a member of the school faculty in studies of the school population such as those described earlier in this chapter. Perhaps the best he can do is to make a careful study of good research in adolescence or to make his own research into the behavior of a particular adolescent. In our opinion the important thing is for the teacher to be curious and remain curious about adolescence, to continue reading, to continue participating in studies and discussions, and to continue investigating the needs of his own students.

THE TEACHER SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN STUDY AND PLANNING OF THE CURRICULUM

In most secondary schools the teacher has many opportunities to participate in studying and planning the curriculum of the school as a whole. In larger schools with departmental organization the teacher can plan with his colleagues for the instructional framework, for units of work (large divisions of instruction), and for specific learning experiences related to pupil needs. As a member of one or more of the many committees operating in high school faculties, he may have much to do with introducing and modifying extraclass activities of many types. As a member of the faculty he may participate in decisions to change the program of studies, to revise graduation requirements, to adopt policies regarding many curriculum problems. Many teachers are called upon to serve as members of curriculum-planning committees for the school system. Some may be asked to develop curriculum guides (courses of study, resource materials, suggestions for teaching). Many can work through in-service study groups for curriculum change. In all these enterprises he has an opportunity to utilize all he knows and to learn about the relation of adolescent needs and curriculum possibilities. In them he can constantly evaluate the curriculum in terms of such educational needs as those listed in Table 35 (page 358).

THE TEACHER SHOULD RELATE PUPIL NEEDS AND CURRICULUM
POSSIBILITIES IN HIS OWN CLASSES

One opportunity for curriculum improvement always available to the teacher, in fact in each period of each school day, is in his own classes. Here is the real test of whether the curriculum is related to the basic educational needs of boys and girls. Many of these needs have to be met in several curriculum areas, and each class should contribute to fulfilling at least one need to justify its existence. As the teacher plans for his classes, as he works with these classes, and as he deals with individual pupils, there is always the searching question to be answered: "Am I *really* giving these pupils what they need?" If a teacher can carry on his classes so as to help pupils become more skilled in communicating, for example, then he is helping them meet an important need. Every time he helps Johnny or Mary learn to speak more distinctly, listen more closely, write more clearly, read more intelligently, he is making a difference in their lives. If his classes are in areas relating to homemaking and other adult activities, his contributions to their needs are clearly discernible. Teaching in vocational and recreational programs is especially rewarding in the obvious differences in skills that may be observed by the teacher as he works with pupils from day to day. But every class has its potential relationship to vital educational needs of boys and girls growing up in our complex society. They need information in great quantity to understand the world and mankind, skills of many varieties, appreciations of values and people, and aspirations and desires to control their future activities. To all these needs teachers can give lasting help if they are understanding and skilled in the study of youth needs and of the curriculum.

THE TEACHER SHOULD BE EXPERIMENTAL IN HIS THINKING
AND TEACHING

Our final suggestion, almost exhortation, to teachers who would relate adequately their teaching to the educational needs of youth is that they keep open minds and use them intelligently. The teacher who becomes complacent about his relation to adolescents and their needs begins to fail in his job. For example, for years a fine young science teacher of our acquaintance showed great interest in the science interests and difficulties of his pupils. He predicted with unusual accuracy the boys and girls who would go on into scientific careers and he gave them inspiration as well as knowledge and technique. Such glowing reports about his teaching came back to him that perhaps he decided that

his present students could be taught just like those with whom he had done so well. But criticisms began to come that his teaching was boring and fewer students went on from his classes to further study. He had become complacent. Like too many teachers, he had failed to recognize the dynamics of education. Science changes, boys and girls change, and effective teaching changes accordingly. Teachers who become better instead of worse are those who regard each class they teach as a new challenge, composed of boys and girls different from those taught the year before. Each group must be studied, its members known as persons, and new methods and materials and ideas tried out to fit their unique needs. This is the experimental method of teaching, the method that is always rewarding to pupils and teachers alike. In this kind of teaching, the teacher is constantly evaluating his own performance as well as that of his pupils. Never disregarding the expectations that exist for what his pupils should learn, he seeks to find the most efficient ways of guiding this learning: ways that are tailored to the specific interests, abilities, and needs of his pupils. This is teaching at its best.

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A revision of the popular *Education for All American Youth* (1944), which proposed a postwar program for secondary education.

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Garrett, Harley F. "A Review and Interpretation of Investigations of Factors Related to Scholastic Success in Colleges of Arts and Sciences and Teachers Colleges," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 18:91-138 (December, 1949).

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Halverson, Paul M., ed. *Frontiers of Secondary Education I*. Proceedings of a Conference on Secondary Education. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1956.

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Latimer, John Francis. *What's Happened to Our High Schools?* Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1958.

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Vice-Admiral Rickover, the promoter of naval use of atomic energy, has vented here his criticisms of public education, following many of the Council for Basic Education publications and arguments. He proposes demonstration high schools, with selective admission, for academically talented youth.

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Whyte, William H. Jr. *The Organization Man*. New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1956.

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II

Providing for the Common Needs— General Education

The last chapter (Table 35, page 358) suggested seven major needs of adolescents for which the secondary school curriculum should make provision. These needs are those common ones which constitute the basis of general education. Individual youth vary in the extent of their needs, and the educational program is expanded to include specialized programs relevant to some of these. This chapter is primarily concerned with the basic provisions for all youth, that is, with general education in grades 7 through 12. First, we illustrate these educational needs of adolescents by describing the kind of characteristics we believe should be sought in the high school graduate.

Characteristics to Be Sought in High School Graduates

In Chapter 6 we reviewed many statements of educational purposes, emphasizing our point of view that each local faculty, and indeed each teacher, should develop their own list. In so doing, the teacher's question is, What sort of individual should the high school graduate be? Which of his characteristics should have been developed in part at least by the secondary school? We give our answer to this question by describing the traits we believe desirable in a high school graduate with particular attention to those which should have been acquired in secondary school.

Our John (or Mary) Graduate would be a distinctive personality, possessing interests, ambitions, perhaps competencies somewhat different from any other individual. These would be due in part to the strenuous effort made by his teachers to help him profit from some specialized educational opportunities. He would also, however, have many other

interests, ambitions, and skills like those of other graduates that would help him stand shoulder to shoulder with all the boys and girls who have profited from the program of general education. He might read or speak better or differently from others, but we would expect him to be able to read intelligently common forms of printed communications and speak with clarity in ordinary life situations.

These communication skills would be a first competence of John. He should be able and anxious to read understandingly and critically a daily newspaper, a weekly news magazine, and other current periodicals. We hope that he would enjoy reading good stories, articles, novels, and other literature, too. He would write legible, well-organized letters and reports, and be able to take care of his business forms, application blanks, and other writing jobs. Speaking before a group would be no unpleasant chore, and his conversational abilities would be at least acceptable to other eighteen-year-olds. He would know how to listen to others, too, in audience and face-to-face situations. His tastes in radio and television programs should show good judgment. His reading, writing, speaking, and listening would be facilitated by satisfactory vocabulary and language usage, and a good understanding of common mathematical and other symbolic terms. We hope, too, that his program might have included enough modern language study for him to have at least a beginning knowledge in a language other than English. John would communicate well.

Our John would also be able to stand shoulder to shoulder with his peers as they take on increasingly the activities of adults. He is interested in civic affairs and looks eagerly to the time he can cast his ballot. Already he is conscious of his responsibilities in driving an automobile carefully and in observing traffic and other safety precautions. He understands basic tax principles and expects to contribute his share of tax funds. He recognizes the evils and symptoms of delinquent behavior and already is trying to help some of his juniors avoid the paths to delinquency. John appreciates the democratic bases of our government and expects to do his part to preserve and improve the American system. He understands how to work helpfully as a group member, and respects the rights and privileges of other people.

John has learned, too, that good citizenship involves some efficiency in his personal budgeting and consuming habits. He knows how to stretch economically his allowance and small earnings, and how to keep savings. He has learned to discriminate in his purchases, and how to get advice when buying in new fields. He understands prevailing wage and income possibilities in the vocational fields of interest to him, and appreciates the relation of education and experience to income advancement.

Our Mary Graduate would have acquired some basic skills in selecting and even making her own clothes as well as in cooking, housekeeping, child care, and home management. John, too, would realize that the man of the house has work to do there and would have at least a rudimentary knowledge of a few basic skills needed around the home. Both John and Mary appreciate the significance of the family in American life and expect to marry in time and make a happy home for the mates and children they want.

John has learned that there is a rational basis for the questions and problems he encounters, and feels secure in his ability to find out the answers to questions as they occur. He knows how to use common sources of information, such as the dictionary and encyclopedia. He is accustomed to weighing mentally his conclusions before stating them. He understands how to discard an answer that doesn't stand up to the facts. When he asks a question of other persons, he likes to know how they arrive at the answer. He likes to check his opinions with those of others, and to look for the reason behind differences of opinion. He is also aware of his own ignorance, and eager to learn more about many human problems. He hopes to have further formal schooling and believes he can work hard and effectively if he goes on to college.

John Graduate would have a beginning knowledge of our complex



Homemaking Skills Are Required for Today's Graduates. Modern high schools provide experiences in a great variety of the duties of the housewife. (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

world and man's role therein. He is aware of the scientific bases of natural life and of the physical phenomena all around him. He has adequate concepts of geographical locations and relationships and a sense of time relationships in the development of our civilization. He understands the existence of different cultures in the world and some of the likenesses and differences between cultures. He is aware of the unique responsibilities of mankind and of man's control over matter. He appreciates the role of the creative arts in civilization. He has developed some of the niceties of human relationships and is sensitive to other personalities.

John has developed some recreational interests which will be persistent over the years. He enjoys sports, both as a spectator and as a participant. He can participate in such common social activities as swimming and dancing. He likes beauty in nature, literature, music, or art. He likes people and is perfectly secure in his social relationships with other boys and girls as well as with older and younger persons.

John would also have learned how to take care of his health. He understands his body and recognizes its limitations. He practices good habits of nutrition, rest, and work. He knows how to balance work and play, physical and mental activities, and has satisfactory physical coordination. He knows how to protect himself against disease and disabling accidents. If it became necessary for him to go into military training he would already have some understanding of basic physical skills and defense practices. John is a healthy, fit young man.

Although John would not have definitely decided on his life's occupation, we think he would know that his capabilities point toward one or more vocations. He knows what the demands and possibilities of these vocations are and expects to take appropriate training for the one he finally selects. Perhaps he prefers a career in business and wishes to do work in business administration in a university. He would appreciate the responsibilities and duties of businessmen and would already have had some experiences working during summers and on a part-time basis in various business enterprises. He would look forward eagerly to his college training and to further experiences in work while he is in college.

Thus, our conception of the ideal school graduate is that he would have attained considerable proficiency in respect to the basic educational needs of adolescents listed in Table 35:

1. Adequate communication skills
2. Adult activities as homemakers, citizens, and consumers
3. Use of effective problem-solving and learning processes
4. Understanding of the world and man
5. Interest and skill in appropriate aesthetic and recreational activities
6. Maintaining good health and physical fitness

7. Choice of an occupation and preparation for further related study and/or occupational training

The remainder of this chapter will examine the usual provisions in the secondary school curriculum related to each of these needs. That is, we shall see how secondary schools try to produce the kind of graduate we have described. It must be emphasized that the school does not alone produce such a person. The home, the church, youth organizations, communities, many influences are working to affect John's development. Our concern here, however, is with the direct contributions that are attempted by secondary schools.

Methods of Providing for Common Needs

Although a particular school faculty or its controlling board of education may have never made a systematic study of the needs of youth, there is always an assumption that the school program is designed to serve these needs. Thus, if one asks any teacher why a certain subject or activity is provided, the almost invariable answer is "because our pupils *need* [the subject or activity]." Furthermore, there is generally the assumption that "our pupils *need*" some particular pattern of subjects and activities. These patterns we classify as the required program of studies, all-school activities, and all-school emphases.

THE REQUIRED PROGRAM OF STUDIES

Certain illustrative programs of studies were presented in Chapter 9. Our study of many such programs, and of the graduation requirements of state, county, and city school systems, indicates that certain subjects are almost universally taken. In general, one may expect the high school graduate to have had in grades 7 through 12 a minimum number of years of instruction in certain subjects as follows:

- English—5 (3 in grades 7-9)
- Social Studies—5 (3 in grades 7-9)
- Mathematics—4 (3 in grades 7-9)
- Science—3 (1 in grades 7-9)
- Health and Physical Education—5 to 6 (3 in grades 7-9)
- Homemaking or Industrial Arts—1 (grades 7-9)
- Art and Music—6 weeks to 1 year of each (grades 7-9)

These are minimum requirements; we noted in Chapter 9 that the majority of students probably have an additional year in mathematics, and perhaps in English, and that many have an additional year in science and two years in a language. The nature of these subjects as ac-

tually developed in our secondary schools varies greatly, but these are the curriculum fields in which all pupils are assumed to need experience in the secondary school years.

One variant in the requirements is that of the core organization. As already noted and as to be explained fully in the next chapter, the core plan is a particular curriculum organization designed to meet some common needs of the pupils concerned. It is usually *required*, however, in the schools (usually junior high schools) where offered, and typically replaces or combines two or more of the subject fields just listed. Most usually, these subjects are English and social studies.

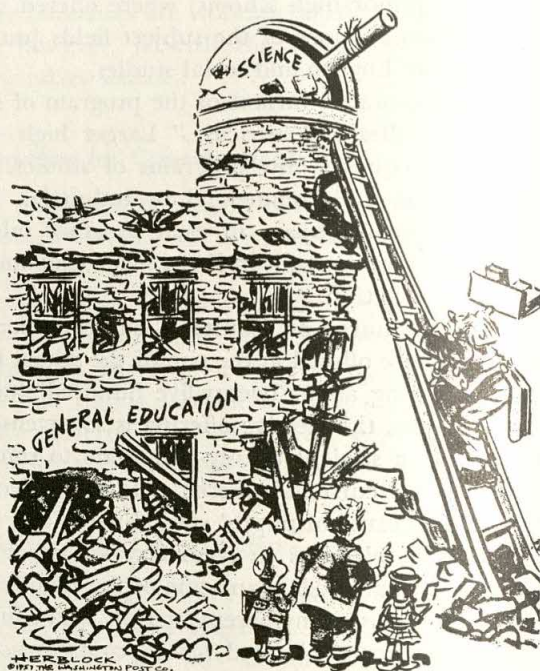
Another and more common variant of the program of studies is the multiple program of studies or "curricula." Larger high schools, even medium-sized schools, frequently list programs of studies, such as college preparatory, general, and commercial or industrial. Students are required to take additional subjects in each program other than the general. Thus, these programs really seek to meet common needs of a portion of the pupil population.

In addition to the required or "constant" subjects, elective subjects (also called "variables") are offered as the size of the school permits. In a large high school, enrolling about twenty-five hundred students, which one of us frequently visits, the elective offering is so extensive that it is estimated it would take a student twenty-four years to complete at the usual rate all the subjects currently offered! Although elective subjects are presumably chosen because of pupils' special needs and interests, the fact is that many of the electives in secondary schools may be more closely related to pupils' real needs than some of the required subjects as traditionally organized. Thus, many parents, pupils, and educators would argue that in twentieth-century United States, courses such as typing, driver training, consumer education, and family living meet more common needs than do those in English literature and algebra. However, we should note that these common youth needs are not necessarily served exclusively by required subjects. That is, many young people in high school may need to learn to type, for example, but some others may have already learned and still others may never need the skill. Also, the traditional course in English literature may fail to meet the needs of many high school pupils, but courses in reading for work and for enjoyment adapted to the reading interests and levels of pupils enrolled may be useful to virtually all pupils.

The point of the accompanying cartoon is that no one subject—not even science in the Space Age—can by itself meet the needs of all youth. The best we can do is to provide a general framework—the subject fields and/or core curriculum—in which particular teachers may work with particular young people to develop skills and understandings they need. The

subject requirements should be regarded, we believe, not as requirements of specific subject matter to be mastered but as general areas of experience in which selections may be made by teachers as they plan with each other and with pupils for functional learning. Later in this chapter the practices and possibilities in meeting common needs through the com-

"Hey—Don't Forget The Bottom Part, Too"



from *Herblock's Special for Today* (Simon and Schuster, 1958)

monly taken subjects will be examined in more detail. These possibilities are suggested in summary form in Table 36, showing our evaluation of the potential contributions of the various curriculum areas to each need.

ALL-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

Although Chapter 16 is devoted to out-of-class school activities, it seems appropriate here to identify briefly certain activities in which all pupils usually participate. These activities reflect educators' notions as to means of meeting youth needs just as do the subjects required of all pupils. Four groups of such all-school activities are briefly treated in the following paragraphs.

TABLE 36

How Do the Major Curriculum Areas Contribute to the Educational Needs of Adolescents?

MAJOR CURRICULUM AREAS	OUR OWN EVALUATION OF POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF THE AREAS TO EACH NEED						
	COMMUNI- CATION SKILLS	ADULT ACTIV- ITIES	PROBLEM- SOLVING PROCESS	UNDERSTAND- ING WORLD AND MAN	AESTHETIC AND RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES	HEALTH & PHYSICAL FITNESS	OCCUPA- TIONAL CHOICES
Agriculture	2	2	2	2	3	3	1
Art	2	2	3	2	1	3	2
Business education	1	1	2	2	3	3	1
English	1	2	1	1	1	3	2
Foreign languages	1	2	3	2	2	3	2
Health and phys- ical education	2	2	3	3	1	1	2
Homemaking	2	1	2	3	3	2	2
Industrial arts	2	1	2	3	3	3	2
Mathematics	1	2	1	2	3	3	2
Music	2	2	3	2	1	3	2
Science	2	2	1	1	3	2	2
Social studies	2	1	1	1	3	3	2
Trades and industries	2	1	2	2	3	3	1

Key to marks:

1—Major contribution.

2—Some contribution.

3—Little (if any) contribution.

Assemblies. Wide variation is found in the nature and frequency of assembly programs in secondary schools. But every school has its auditorium, cafetorium, or other facility, even outdoors, for getting all pupils together on occasion. In large schools, or even small schools lacking adequate assembly facilities, it is sometimes necessary to have two or more assemblies to provide for the entire school. For some purposes, the same program may be repeated in each assembly by different groups. For others, such as orientation of the entering class (grade 7 or 9 or 10), the assembly may be for only a portion of the student body.

Among the needs of pupils frequently served by assemblies are the following:

Information about persons, events, or ideas commemorated by special days or weeks

Information about current community, national, and international events of importance

Recognition of students who have achieved exceptionally well, or who have been chosen for various honors, or who perform for the others

- Appreciation of musical, artistic, dramatic, or other types of programs presented by students and outside performers
- Participation in group singing, cheering, and other forms of audience activity
- Practice of courtesies in large audience situations
- Development of interests in various forms of wholesome entertainment

Social programs. Adolescents like dances and parties, and the modern secondary school provides opportunities for cultivating these interests in a wholesome fashion. Dancing in the social room or gymnasium during the lunch hour or activity period may be permitted. Schools make varying provisions for after-school affairs such as class parties, dinners, dances, weiner roasts, ice-cream suppers, and camping trips. In small schools, the entire student body may participate in each affair. In most instances, each class or homeroom or club arranges for its own social functions, sometimes opening these to nonmembers. Through these social programs such purposes as the following may be served:

- Developing wholesome boy-girl relationships
- Extending interests and skills in recreational activities
- Providing practice in the social amenities
- Practicing leadership in social groups

Student government. Studies made by the National Association of Secondary School Principals indicate that about 80 per cent of our secondary schools, especially the medium-sized and larger schools, have some type of student council organization. The extent to which student government plans produce all-school values varies widely. In some instances student government merely involves student elections of officers who have very little responsibilities once elected. In others the student council has well-defined functions, and its actions result from careful consideration of the relevant issues in the constituent units, usually homerooms. In schools having this latter plan such values as the following may accrue to the student body:

- Experience in the election of representatives and officers
- Recognition for student leaders
- Participation in the routines of representative government
- Acceptance of responsibility for outcomes of students' own plans and actions
- Closer relationship of the school program to pupils' needs and interests
- Understanding of democratic principles and procedures

Use of school facilities. Many of the significant experiences and resultant learnings youth have in secondary school come as they learn to use the various school facilities. Noteworthy in relationship to educational needs is the use of the library and other school resources. As

boys and girls learn to use card catalogues, periodical guides, reference books, films, recordings, and other learning tools, they are acquiring skills that may be helpful in many situations. Important learnings regarding nutrition, budget, and courtesy may be developed in the school cafeteria. Even the corridors and rest rooms provide opportunities for the practice of principles of social behavior, sanitation, and care of property. The school grounds can be utilized for teamwork in beautification and gardening as well as in athletics and physical education. Special equipment in the gymnasium, visual-aids room, laboratories, shops, music and art rooms also offers the resourceful teacher a chance to teach all pupils who use these facilities how to care for them.

Other all-school activities. Most of the activities described in Chapter 16 offer some possibilities for serving the common needs of all or most pupils. Thus only a minority of the student body may participate in producing school publications, but all may learn how to feel a part of an organization through reading and criticizing its publications. Only a few may participate actively in spectator sports and other events, but all may learn how to conduct themselves as spectators. Particularly in the various aesthetic areas is there good opportunity for those who do not produce music or art, for example, to become good consumers. In short, the modern secondary school is truly a remarkably broad social community in which every individual has an opportunity to acquire a wide variety of interests, skills, appreciations, and understandings that he may find useful in the larger out-of-school community.

This section on all-school activities should not be closed without a reminder to the prospective teacher that all these activities do not have such valuable educative results for pupils unless teachers are directing them to this end. The responsibility of a secondary school teacher includes planning and helping youth to use the assemblies, social programs, student government, and other school-wide activities so that the values mentioned above will be realized. To this end teachers in training might help themselves to prepare for these responsibilities through such means as the following:

1. When they visit high schools, they should inquire as to (a) the school-wide activities offered all pupils; (b) the responsibilities that individual teachers have for these activities; and (c) any evidence as to the values realized from each school-wide activity.
2. During their student teaching or internship experience, they should try to observe a variety of school-wide activities.
3. During their student teaching, they should also become closely associated with the planning of assemblies, social programs, student government, or other school-wide activities, and find ways in which they can give effective help in one or more of these.

SCHOOL-WIDE EMPHASES OR PROJECTS

In many secondary schools there is considerable faculty planning toward meeting some common youth need in many phases of the school program. For example, citizenship education is frequently accepted as a broad school aim. In addition to planned instruction in social studies classes, there may be school elections, assembly speakers, citizenship rules, and other practices planned to provide maximum opportunity for acquiring the understandings and skills needed by citizens.

Frequently, some set of skills such as reading, speaking, and study is adopted by the faculty for school-wide emphasis. Then all teachers try to give conscious attention to these skills in all their classes and in other contacts with pupils.

Various types of campaigns, drives, public performances, and other projects may also be used by school faculties to give central purpose to pupil activity. Thus, collections for charitable purposes, beautification of school or community grounds, school expositions or exhibits or fairs are frequently planned to stimulate related pupil experiences. Unevenly good in their direction and results as such projects are in practice, they do offer possibilities for effective faculty-student planning of significant school-wide enterprises.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Pervading the entire school experience of boys and girls is the quality of relationships they have with each other and with the adults in the school. If the social climate of the school is such that students have difficulty in learning from each other, or such that students have little opportunity to get direct advice and help from teachers, then some, perhaps all, of the common needs are met inadequately. The methods of classroom organization and of controlling pupil movement and association throughout the school may affect very substantially the opportunity to develop pupil initiative, self-discipline, and cooperation. Each of the more tangible aspects of the school program needs constant review to determine how it is aiding boys and girls to acquire such sorely needed characteristics of the school graduate. His ability to handle well relations with other people affects his proficiency in each of the areas of basic educational need we have defined.

Providing for Communicative and Computational Skills

The fundamental provision made by the high school curriculum for the needs of youth in respect to communication skills is the universal requirement of English throughout the school years. Instruction

in other languages also provides for developing these skills. In addition, some general phases of mathematics are primarily designed to develop skill in reading as well as using mathematical language. Communication skills are also used in every learning experience of the school, and instruction regarding them may be found in many areas and activities. This section will analyze the provisions made in English, foreign languages, mathematics, and other areas and activities.

ENGLISH

Although not even considered a respectable subject in our early secondary schools, English has become the most universally required of all subjects. Only in the senior high school, and for not more than one year there, may a pupil fail to have a class in English. Three units in grades 9 through 12 are commonly required for college entrance, and three or even four for high school graduation. Generally, the required basic courses in English are supplemented by various electives. In addition to the basic courses (ninth-grade English, and so on), the 1949 survey of high school enrollments reported a large number of courses offered under these headings: speech, dramatic art, debate, radio speaking and broadcasting, journalism, creative writing, advanced composition, world literature, American literature, English literature, current literature, Bible, college preparatory English, grammar, remedial English, penmanship, and foreign adjustment English.¹ Obviously, most of these courses are designed to meet specialized rather than common needs of high school youth.

The content of the required English courses varies, of course, but typically instruction in the basic courses consists primarily of work in oral and written language and in literature. This work may be organized on a somewhat unified basis throughout the year, or there may be separate semester courses in language and literature. Speech is frequently a separate course, sometimes required and sometimes elective. The beginning secondary school teacher can advise pupils intelligently about the content of English courses in his school only by inquiring of the English teachers or checking the school's own program of studies to see what the practice actually is.

Regardless of the organization of the English courses, this field has very significant possibilities for meeting common youth needs. Every boy and girl needs to become proficient in clear oral and written expression. Although all teachers can and should provide opportunities for youth to practice their skills of writing and speaking, the organized

¹ U.S. Office of Education, "Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects, 1948-49, Chap. 5 of *Biennial Survey of Education, 1948-50* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951), p. 2.

English classes should make the practice worth while by giving pupils the systematic instruction basic to effective practice. Through English instruction, too, boys and girls may learn to become better, more critical readers of varied types of printed materials. In modern English classes instruction is also concerned with appreciation of radio and television programs. In larger high schools, special courses may be offered in radio and television. However, we believe best practice assures that all pupils have some experience through the required English courses with the various forms of expression, both as producers and as consumers.

All members of any high school faculty may help in making English instruction meet pupil needs in their school by studying practice in their school in the light of such questions as the following:

1. Do all teachers feel a responsibility for teaching the skills of communication? Do they refer to the English teachers any students who need special help? Do the English teachers give adequate remedial instruction where needed? Do the English teachers help other teachers with problems of teaching reading, writing, and speaking?

Some high schools have taken a step toward the affirmative answer to these questions by establishing English or language "laboratories," to which students bring their writing problems and projects for help by skilled English teachers. In other situations, papers for history, biology, or other subjects are prepared in English classes and then reviewed by English teachers for form and by the appropriate teacher for content.

2. Is the emphasis on various communication skills commensurate with their use outside school? Is conversational ability given more attention than public speaking? letter writing than theme writing? For some students English teachers have eliminated traditional types of themes and instead ask for more writing of the kind common in adult life. Reports, summaries, and personal and business letters are emphasized. From time to time students get practice as secretaries of school groups. Committees investigating problems of interest write up reports. In addition, however, most college-bound students need extensive practice in writing themes and other formal papers.

3. Is correct usage stressed instead of formal rules? Are standards of usage understood and applied? Are individual youngsters helped with their particular usage errors? Teachers frequently ask pupils to keep self-checking records of their common errors.

4. Is an adequate variety of reading materials available and are students given skillful guidance in the choice and use of materials? Is there sufficient opportunity for each pupil to find material that will interest him and stimulate further reading? A major job for the resourceful English teacher is keeping an adequate classroom or school collection of such materials and advising students in their choice.

5. Is the organization of the English program flexible enough to encourage teachers to develop skills as needed? Are reading, speaking, writing, and listening skills matters of conscious attention in all English activities? A flexible organization is provided in many schools by the organization of English instruction around ideas and problems of interest to students, such as discussion techniques, personality, radio. Skills are attacked indirectly through reading, talking, and writing about these problems. At the same time systematic instruction in formal grammar and composition is essential.

6. Is there adequate opportunity for individual students to develop special interests and competencies in reading, speaking, writing, publications, and dramatics? Are these opportunities closely related to the general English program so that all students will receive adequate guidance in the common communication skills without undue or premature emphasis on a particular skill or interest? Elective or honor courses in the special English fields may be desirable for students who are qualified and interested, but basic English courses should develop common skills and screen students for advanced work.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

As in the case of certain mathematics courses, there is disagreement among both educators and laymen as to the general educational values of foreign languages. Table 32 (page 324) revealed the great decline in enrollments in Latin as the secondary school has become less selective and less classical in emphasis. The situation with regard to enrollments is clearly analyzed in the following excerpt from the 1948-1949 survey:

The total enrollment in foreign languages is 22 per cent of the total enrollment of all pupils in grades 9 through 12. However, as with most broad fields, since some pupils would be registered in more than one foreign language the actual percentage of pupils, excluding duplicates, who pursue a foreign language would be somewhat less. Our statistics do not show the grades in which the first year of a language is taken, and it cannot be determined, therefore, what percentage of the pupils of a given grade are taking a foreign language. The best estimate may be gained possibly by reflecting the total enrollment in the first year of all foreign languages against the total enrollment for one of the high-school grades. Thus, if this is done for the ninth grade, it will be found that 39 per cent of such pupils take the first year of a foreign language. Using this same method for each of the languages separately, one finds that enrollment in first-year Spanish is 15 per cent of the total enrollment for ninth grade; the enrollment for first-year Latin is 14 per cent; for French it is 8 per cent; and for German it is 1.4 per cent.²

² *Ibid.*, p. 17.

This survey also called attention to the high mortality rate in languages; that is, approximately one third of the pupils who take a first year of a language do not continue the subject.

The foregoing data indicate that a foreign language is not generally required in our secondary schools. One or more languages are commonly recommended for students planning to go to college, and in some schools sending large percentages of their graduates to college this recommendation has the force of a requirement. In geographic areas where there are many Spanish-speaking people, Spanish certainly has general education possibilities; that this is recognized may be implied from the fact that the states having the largest percentage enrollments in Spanish in 1948-1949 were those near the Mexican border: New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, and California.

In his interesting study *What's Happened to Our High Schools?* Latimer examined enrollment data in languages through 1954-1955 and could find no evidence of an increase in the proportion of high school pupils taking foreign languages, although a reversal of the decrease in numbers enrolled from 1934 to 1949 did occur from 1949 to 1955. As a classicist, and a careful student of secondary education as well, Latimer deplores the decline of languages but finds a faint hope for the future:

Although World War II exploded the carefully nurtured myth of our language ineptitude, we Americans have not overcome a deep-rooted prejudice against the study of foreign languages. At a time when our need has been greatest, it is scarcely a proof of our foresight or our so-called practicality that in recent years nearly half of our high schools have offered no foreign languages at all. This has naturally been reflected in college, and it was only in 1955-56 that a slight increase of graduates with a major in foreign languages began to check the downward trend in numbers and percentage that began after 1947-48. The language program in the elementary schools has already made itself felt in high school, if reports from schools and teachers here and there are at all representative. The slight increase in modern language majors in college in 1955-56 may indeed be the first faint fruits of a revival of foreign language.³

That there may have been some improvement in the 1950's is indicated by a report of California enrollments showing that from 1951 to 1956 the percentage of increase in first- and second-year foreign language classes increased more rapidly (by about 10 per cent) than did the total enrollments in the ninth and tenth grades.⁴

Some principal difficulties in redesigning the modern foreign lan-

³ John Francis Latimer, *What's Happened to Our High Schools?* (Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1958), p. 131. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

⁴ John R. Eales, "Enrollments in Foreign Language Classes," *California Schools*, 29:398 (July, 1958).

guage program to serve the national need were summarized as follows by a representative of the Modern Language Association of America at a 1957 national conference on this problem:

1. The restriction of language offerings almost completely to Spanish and French and, infrequently, to a scattering of other West European languages, is unrealistic.
2. Students at too many high schools are automatically denied the opportunity to study a modern foreign language because none is offered.
3. Where a language is offered, too few students are counseled to enroll.
4. Language courses are too short for substantial accomplishment.
5. Teaching objectives are inconsistent with today's modern language needs.
6. Methodology and materials are antiquated and inappropriate.
7. Too many teachers lack speaking competency in the language they attempt to teach.
8. Too many administrators are unaware of the new national needs for modern foreign languages and of the potentialities of more effective teaching programs.
9. Increased attention must be given to the effective continuation of language learning that begins in the elementary school.⁵

We ourselves hope that future curriculum planning in secondary education may provide for substantially higher enrollments in modern languages. We believe that the great mobility of population and our growing international interests make it very important for larger number of our citizens to have some competence in communication through foreign languages. We doubt whether languages should have a required status, but we do believe that improved guidance and teaching procedures should bring to large numbers of youth values through languages studies that would be important in the general living of these youth rather than merely being preparatory to specialized training programs. That is, we see foreign languages becoming an important (but not a uniform) part of general education rather than remaining primarily college preparatory subjects. Current increased public concern about the need for more general study of languages will, we believe, soon be reflected in substantial increases in enrollments.

MATHEMATICS

We have already noted that at least one year of mathematics is generally required of all pupils in grades 9 through 12 and that the majority of pupils probably take two years in these grades. Arithmetic

⁵ Kenneth Mildenerger, "The National Picture of Modern Foreign Languages in the High School," in Marjorie C. Johnston (ed.), *Modern Foreign Languages in the High School* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1958, No. 16; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958), pp. 48-49.

or general mathematics is universally included as a basic subject in grades 7 and 8. Of the number of all ninth-grade students in the schools surveyed in 1956, approximately 43.1 per cent were enrolled in general mathematics and 67.0 per cent in elementary algebra (that is, some upper-classmen were also enrolled to make the total over 100 per cent). The enrollments in plane geometry equalled 41.6 per cent of the pupils in grade 10; the number in intermediate algebra 32.2 per cent of those in grade 11; and the number in the twelfth-grade mathematics courses 16.6 per cent of those in grade 12.⁶ We consider the instruction in arithmetic, general mathematics, and elementary algebra, if not the more advanced subjects, to have a significant relation to the communication skills of youth. Certainly, facility in using and interpreting number concepts and mathematical processes is essential in modern civilization. It is, in fact, distressing to note the frequently high mortality (failure) rates in the mathematics courses. Are too many students enrolled in mathematics who find they cannot succeed? Are the courses too difficult? Are they lacking in general educational values? Or what factors cause too few students to have adequate successful experiences in the study of mathematics? Perhaps one explanation is the frequent failure of teachers to relate mathematics to the everyday reading, speaking, and interpreting activities of youth and adults.

There is probably less variation in the content of the mathematics courses from school to school than in some other subject areas. That is, one may expect considerably more uniformity in algebra, for example, than in civics or general science. The general mathematics courses do vary considerably as to their relative attention to everyday problems and mathematical fundamentals. In good mathematics teaching practice, one may expect to find use of the following principles:

1. Emphasis on meaning of mathematical processes in relation to the concepts youth and adults customarily encounter in their reading and speaking.
2. Opportunity for ample drill on fundamental skills once they are understood.
3. Use of varied practice materials, such as business forms, tax returns, receipts, newspaper advertisements and articles, and budgets, instead of purely hypothetical exercises in textbooks and workbooks.

The nature and amount of mathematics required for the education of citizens are matters of considerable disagreement among educators and laymen alike. On the one hand, there is the certainty that quantitative thinking is essential in our civilization. Calculation and computation

⁶ Kenneth E. Brown and Ellsworth S. Obourn, *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 120, 1957; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 29.

are involved in the daily living of all of us. Understanding of quantitative data is essential even to read the daily newspaper intelligently. For some individuals, these abilities are fairly well developed even by the end of elementary school; for others, they are poorly developed by the end of high school. It seems unreasonable, therefore, to assume that any fixed number of years of instruction will develop skills uniformly. We believe there is merit in the increasingly common practice of tests at some critical point, perhaps grade 9 or 10, to determine what students still need instruction in the basic mathematical skills.

A distinguished mathematics educator, Harold F. Fehr, presented recommendations on the foregoing point in 1958 as outgrowths of a three-year study by a commission on mathematics supported by the Carnegie Foundation. He described the basic seventh- and eighth-grade program in mathematics to be taken by all pupils as follows, and emphasized that the slow learners would need more time and more concrete illustrations but not a different program:

The seventh and eighth program should consist of an extension of arithmetic, of a large segment of intuitive geometry, and of an introduction to the ideas of algebra. The emphasis in arithmetic should be on its rationale and on increasing and maintaining the skills in computation, with much less stress on so-called business applications. This program should be so designed that highly capable pupils can complete it in one to one and one-half years of study, and then go on immediately to the four-year high-school program. The below-average and exceptionally slow pupils will pursue this program over a three-year period to the end of the ninth grade and even longer.⁷

We cannot be satisfied with a program of mathematics instruction which ends when youth have attained satisfactory competence in the mathematical skills required for intelligent computation and reading. Ours is a technical civilization in which highly specialized mathematics plays an important role. Many people believe that the language of algebra and geometry is essential to intelligent citizenship in a technical age; others believe that only the technical worker needs these and higher forms of mathematics. For students who plan careers in fields that use the language and processes of higher mathematics these courses become specialized education.

OTHER AREAS AND ACTIVITIES

Every classroom of the secondary school is a center for teaching the skills of communication. So is every activity wherever conducted.

⁷ Howard F. Fehr, "High-School Mathematics for the Second Half of the 20th Century," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 237), 42:320 (April, 1958). Also recommended are programs for college preparation (see our Chapter 13 for a summary of these).

In schools where there is real concern for developing maximum proficiency of all pupils in the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, every teacher is a teacher of these skills. All written work is checked for errors. Care is given to the language used in all discussions, reports, and other speech activities. Unfortunately, many teachers become so preoccupied with their particular subjects that they fail to maintain good standards of written and spoken English. Furthermore, many teachers have little understanding of the reading problems which block many youth in understanding their textbooks and other printed sources. We believe that every teacher in secondary schools should have some training, perhaps at the in-service level if not before, in the teaching of reading, writing, and speaking. The teacher can at least observe good practice in his own speaking, writing, and listening, and he can also give careful directions as to how to read and study the materials he assigns. He can also be observant of pupils' difficulties and seek aid for those with problems on which he himself cannot give help.

One important skill of communication we have not related to the subjects discussed is typing. Increasing numbers of students are learning to type before high school graduation, although many learn this skill as an extra subject or during summer school or on a noncredit basis. The skill is such a common and desirable one that we believe instruction in typing should be even more universally available. Practice rooms and rooms equipped with typewriters for pupils to prepare their written work may become common facilities of high schools.

We should also note the significance of radio and television in the teaching of communication skills. The modern high school teacher is alert to programs broadcast in and out of school hours that may be used as learning resources both for the information relating to the subject at hand and for the opportunity to teach listening skills. Teachers who take advantage of these opportunities give their pupils some information in advance about the programs, and some questions or items to note are set up by the class. After the programs have been heard or viewed, the ideas, information, and other outcomes are discussed and evaluated. Thus listening and viewing skills are directed and sharpened.

Providing for Induction into Certain Adult Activities

Among the adult activities of great importance into which the secondary school must help induct youth are those of the citizen, consumer, and homemaker. Obviously, the elementary school has already begun some of this induction, and the home and, in fact, the entire community has provided much practice and some instruction in some of the activities. However, the secondary school is generally expected to extend

the experiences and instruction which are needed if the eighteen-year-old is to assume his responsibilities in these capacities. To meet these needs of preparation for adulthood the secondary school provides an extensive program of instruction in social studies, some instruction in homemaking and practical or industrial arts, and varied types of experiences in consumer and citizenship education. These programs and experiences are briefly reviewed in this section.

SOCIAL STUDIES

Before 1900 the social studies offering of senior high schools was restricted to European and American history. No direct teaching of citizenship was included. In the twentieth century, however, many new courses in this field have become popular. The last national survey reported approximately one hundred different course titles for grades 7 through 12, the major ones being as follows:

United States history (various titles)	History of the Orient
World history (various titles)	Negro history
State history	American government
Latin-American history	Problems of democracy
Industrial history and geography	International relations
World geography	Economics
Community civics	Sociology
Occupations	Psychology
Orientation	Consumer education ⁸
English history	

Practice as to what subjects are required varies in social studies, too. The geography of the United States and the world and the history of America are almost universally included in grades 7 and 8. Civics is frequently required in grade 9. Generally, one year of American history and one other year of social studies, either a specific course such as "Problems of Democracy" or any of several electives, are required in grades 10 through 12. Practice varies widely regarding the extent to which the separate subjects (history, geography, civics, and so on) are fused in the required courses, and also as to the inclusion of current events. The high school teacher may assume, however, that every pupil he teaches who completes the twelfth grade will have had four to six units of social studies, with considerable portions of these units devoted to the institutions of American citizenship, past and present.

Instruction in social studies seems essential in the education of citizens for today's world of complex social institutions and pressing social problems. The basic purpose of public education in America is

⁸"Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects, 1948-49," pp. 110-111.

education for citizenship, and it follows that every school should assure its graduates of a workable knowledge of American history and of the skills and understandings needed in the everyday affairs of the citizen. High school teachers interested in a maximum contribution of social studies instruction to the common needs of youth should ask such questions as these about the program of their individual schools:

1. Is the content of social studies selected on the basis of important social problems experienced or anticipated by all young people? The range of these problems is very wide and selections must be made in accordance with pupil and community needs and expectations. For example, a twelfth-grade class that one of us visited in an urban community suggested as important civic problems the following: parking meters, traffic laws, housing, form of city government, lack of recreation centers, inadequate school building, reform of the state legislature, liquor consumption, gambling, the presidential election, a current strike, military service, divorce, and the juvenile court. It was necessary for the teacher to suggest which of these might be studied feasibly, and for the group, with his guidance, to select a starting point.

2. Is instruction organized around pertinent problems of the citizen, with irrelevant details, background, and uninteresting material eliminated? Any one of the problems suggested in the preceding paragraph might provide a course for the advanced college student. High school seniors, however, are not likely to be interested in such exhaustive studies. The teacher must help in identifying the current problems, and in bringing to bear on them information that is clearly and directly pertinent. For example, our entire national political history could be logically related to any presidential election. The high school senior, however, needs an understanding, not of all past presidential elections, but merely of the process, of the chief issues, and of any previous elections that shed light on the current one.

3. Is there adequate attention to systematic study of American and world history? Although considerable history and especially civics may be taught through the problem approaches suggested above, there is also value in the systematic study of history. The traditions, aspirations, and cultural attainments of American and other civilizations should not be left to chance in the modern program of social studies instruction.

4. Are library materials, radio and television programs, films and other visual aids, firsthand study in the community, and local speakers, as well as textbooks, used as resources? Here faculty members can cooperate in making available resources that may be in departments other than social studies. Increasingly libraries become centers in which mag-

azine and pamphlet materials as well as books are available to classes as they take up studies for which existing textbooks are inadequate. The principal may be helpful in arranging for trips and speakers. The teacher's job is to see that necessary information is secured by the most efficient means.

5. Are the procedures of citizens' action emphasized and illustrated through the use of various devices of democracy, such as councils, committees, elections, and student meetings and discussions? These devices can be used to make and execute plans and decisions regarding the problems of the classroom, the school, and the community with which the students are directly concerned. The entire school becomes a laboratory for citizenship education when there is deliberate effort to provide practice in the skills of democratic action.

6. Are civic problems dealt with in school activities other than social studies classes? Assembly programs can be used for films, speakers, and student panels that present to all students information on current events. Social problems may be dealt with appropriately, too, in science, homemaking, and other subjects. And the entire organized student life of the school can be utilized for the practice of democratic skills in solving problems of social life in the school.

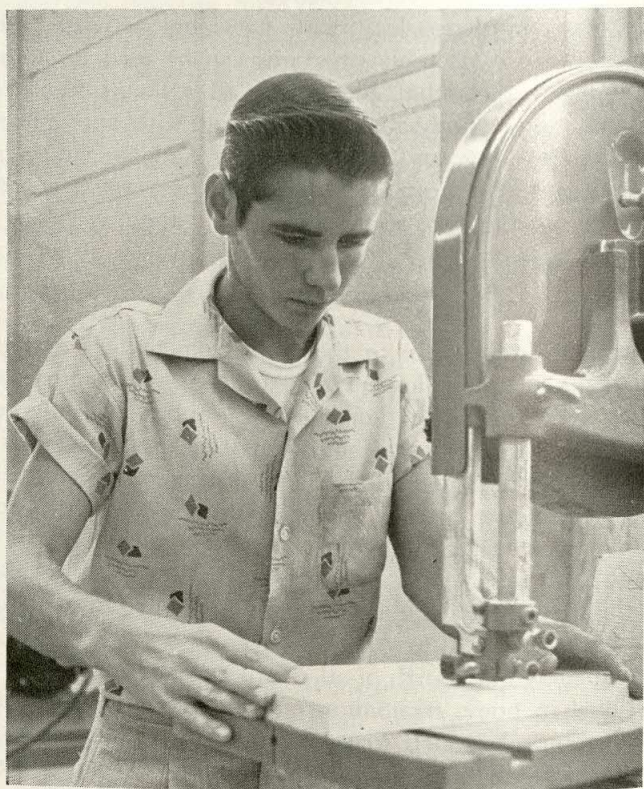
HOMEMAKING AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS

Of potential importance to the adult homemaker are the courses offered in high school in homemaking or home economics and in industrial arts. Unfortunately, homemaking courses typically serve the common needs of girls only and industrial arts those of boys. In modern family life we observe increasingly less distinction between the jobs done around the house by men and women and suspect that real preparation for homemaking by both sexes would include some training for all youth in food selection and preparation, housekeeping and housecleaning, child care, buying for the home, home decoration, gardening, and home repairs.

Approximately one fourth of all pupils enrolled in grades 9 through 12 are enrolled in home economics courses. Generally speaking, junior high schools require all girls to have a semester or a year's experience in this field. Four-year high schools whose pupils come from eight-grade elementary schools not offering homemaking frequently have a similar requirement. Beyond such a required general course, home economics is generally an elective program more properly considered as specialized education. The status of industrial arts for boys is very similar to that of home economics for girls. The 1948-1949 survey found that non-

vocational industrial arts enrolled one fourth of all pupils in all types of schools.⁹ It was found most frequently in junior high schools, where twelve weeks to a year in general shop or other industrial arts courses is quite generally prescribed in grades 7 and 8. Beyond this general course, industrial arts, like home economics, is usually elective and specialized in nature.

The experiences included in these general courses in both fields vary considerably, but we believe that they usually make very fine contributions to the induction of youth into the adult activities of the homemaker. Girls learn to cook and sew, to select foods and clothing, to plan healthful menus, and perhaps to care for children. Boys learn to use tools and simple machines, to make home furniture, to repair



Use of Machinery Is Important to Today's Adult. The shops of modern high schools are important laboratories for learning to use tools and machines. (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

home equipment. Furthermore, some efforts are being made to give both boys and girls all of these learnings. Thus homemaking classes are coeducational in some schools. Special courses, perhaps unfortunately offered as electives, are offered for both boys and girls, under such titles as family living, consumer education, and the like. Exchange units permit boys to have some experience in the foods laboratory while girls are in the shop. Some of the homemaking and consumer problems are also frequently considered in core curriculum plans or in social and personal problems courses offered perhaps in the social studies department.

OTHER AREAS AND ACTIVITIES

It was just noted that problems of the consumer and homemaker are sometimes considered in social studies courses. They may also be considered in courses in general mathematics and general science or even in more advanced science. Thus, the general mathematics courses may be organized around such problems of the consumer as budgeting, insurance, and taxation. The science courses frequently give attention to tests of food, drugs, and clothing, and attempt to develop for the pupil some basis for understanding and evaluating advertising claims for various manufactured products.

Citizenship, like communication, is an aim of the entire school. Not only in social studies but also in all other classes is there opportunity to practice the democratic processes of selecting officers and representatives, choosing topics and questions for discussion, arriving at consensus and conclusion. The extraclass program is a particularly fine laboratory for the development of skills in group activity and group process. Nearly all secondary schools have some type of student government organization, and here is a vital opportunity for youth to learn to conduct some of their own group affairs.

Developing Effective Problem-Solving and Learning Processes

Adolescents' need for acquiring effective problem-solving and learning processes is one that simply cannot be identified with one curriculum area more than another. Every class taught in the secondary school is an opportunity for teaching pupils how to learn efficiently. The scientific method and problem solving are usually considered synonymous (and we ourselves see learning itself as problem solving), so some would assign the teaching of this method to the science department. However, we feel this is not a full recognition of problem solving as the *method* of all human learning. As we see it, people really learn only as they con-

sciously seek to solve some sort of problem, to meet some need, to attain some goal, to satisfy some motive. The efforts the individual makes to solve his problem represent learning activity and result in some kind of learning. Problem solving occurs in all areas of the school curriculum in which pupils consciously seek to learn. Whether the learning activity is rewarding depends on the kind of instruction which prevails. We shall have more to say about this type of teaching in Chapter 15 and here need only to emphasize the fact that every teacher can be a teacher of problem solving. At this point it is worth while, we believe, to call special attention to the responsibility of all teachers to give specific instruction in study or learning skills. These skills in relation to the steps of problem solving are as follows:

Identifying the problem

Clarifying the problem and planning goal-seeking activities

Carrying on goal-seeking activities

Evaluating the learning product

These skills are illustrated now by reference to certain of the common areas of the general education program.

ENGLISH

All of the communication skills represent problems of a greater or lesser nature to the adolescent. He generally recognizes his need to speak, listen, write, and read effectively and is grateful for experiences which make him more adept in his communication with other people. His English teacher can help greatly by pointing out to him deficiencies in his speech, writing, or reading that he can remedy. In conference with his teacher, each learner can attempt to diagnose his difficulties and work out plans for remedying them. The work he does in rewriting papers, in testing his speeches before and after their delivery or recording, and in reading according to a plan represent goal-seeking activities. As he checks for himself, with the help of his teachers, his successive papers, speeches, and reading comprehension tests, he can evaluate the extent to which he is making progress.

SOCIAL STUDIES

The social studies courses offer splendid opportunity for youth to formulate questions and interests in the "why" and "how" of social progress and action. Particularly interesting to most adolescents are the current questions of the day—in the school, the community, the nation, and the world. As pupils raise questions concerning the political

scene, the economic ups and downs, and the social difficulties about which they read, hear, and see, the teacher can push discussion of these questions as to causes and solutions. As these questions become group or individual problems, suggestions can be made as to sources of information which will yield insight and understanding. Answers are arrived at, and the reasonableness of the answers is tested by examination of their factual bases and their consequences.

SCIENCE

In science classes there are always questions as to why things are as they are and as to what will happen under proposed circumstances. These questions, too, can be examined as to what kinds of actions must be taken to secure answers. In most cases the answers are demonstrable and the demonstration is a goal-seeking activity for the learner. In other cases experimentation may be indicated and the experiment is itself a test of the hypothesis proposed. In science there is rightly always concern for the explanation of phenomena. As these phenomena of natural life have meaning and interest for youth and as the explanations are presented or determined, the problem-solving method is being followed.

MATHEMATICS

Instruction in mathematics is nearly always centered around problems. These problems are not necessarily those of interest to boys and girls, but as they can be made to represent means to the end of securing mathematical competence and as this end itself represents an important concern, efficient learning processes can be developed. The emphasis in this kind of mathematics teaching is not on the number of problems as exercises to be done but on the mastery of the process which is a key to problems, whether in the exercises or not. That is, pupils who learn how to learn through mathematics have to recognize the importance of particular mathematical operations as keys to unlocking the unknown. Thus effective learning in mathematics is learning of logical steps in the solution of mathematical problems.

OTHER AREAS

The problem approach can be used similarly in other areas of the curriculum for general education. In homemaking the problems are those of the future housewife and mother; in industrial arts, of the man around the house; in health and physical education, of one's personal fitness; and so forth. In all these and other areas the teacher must simply

provide the spark which ignites the inner concerns of boys and girls and then help them clarify what they need to do by way of reading, thinking, seeing, experimenting, practicing, and so forth, to attain the skills, understandings, insights, and attitudes they need. Obviously youth differ in their motivations and in the status of their skills and understandings so that this kind of teaching must be highly individualized.

Providing for Understanding of the World and Man

All education is concerned with increasing man's understanding of himself, his fellows, and the world in which he lives. At the secondary school level certain subject areas are especially charged with development of these understandings: science, social studies, languages, and literature. We have already noted the provisions made for studies in the fields of English, including literature, other languages, and social studies. The preponderance of courses in these fields and the general requirement of several units in each indicate the faith placed in them. Although these subjects are not always taught well and their content varies from school to school, we can expect the high school graduate to have some familiarity with the story of man as revealed by his history and literature. We can also expect the student to have some understanding of the geographical aspects of the world and of the relationship of geographical factors to man's progress. Our own expectations regarding science courses are stated in this section.

SCIENCE

General science is assuming an almost universal status in the junior high school grades: in 1949, 72 per cent of all pupils in grades 7 and 8, and 65 per cent of all pupils in grade 9 were enrolled in a general science subject. In addition to at least one year of science in these grades, nearly all pupils take at least one more year of science in grades 10 through 12. According to a survey in 1956, the enrollment in biology equaled 75.5 per cent of the number of pupils in grade 10; that in chemistry equaled 34.6 per cent of the number of pupils in grade 11; and that in physics equaled 24.3 per cent of the number of pupils in grade 12.¹⁰ The trend in enrollments has definitely been toward the more generalized subjects and away from the specialized ones.

In addition to these courses enrolling the greater number of pupils, and reflecting the typical requirement of one year of general science

¹⁰ Brown and Obourn, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

and one of biology (or biology, chemistry, or physics), courses under such headings as the following are usually on an elective basis:

Botany	Advanced general science
Physiology	Physical science
Zoology	Applied chemistry
Earth science	Advanced chemistry
Aeronautics	Applied physics
Advanced physics	Applied biology
Fundamentals of electricity	Laboratory techniques
Fundamentals of machines	Metallurgy
Radio	Conservation
Advanced biology	Related science

Many of these courses are designed for highly specialized pupil needs, and are considered in that relationship in Chapter 13.

It is difficult to generalize concerning the content of the required courses in general science and biology. The trend has been to place in these courses the basic content assumed to be essential for all citizens, since these have become the accepted courses. In some schools the courses present in capsule form units from the more specialized sciences; in others the courses are organized around basic science principles and problems. In general, the emphasis is placed on scientific principles underlying the basic processes of human life and social institutions and on the scientific method of problem solving. Critical examinations of superstitions and prejudices and the study of scientific discoveries and inventions are frequently included.

Several conditions of modern life underline the potential contribution of science instruction toward the common needs of our people. In the first place, this is truly a scientific age and the citizen can be intelligent about many modern phenomena of life only as he understands their underlying scientific bases. Although modern gadgets do most of our work for us, we live more efficiently as we understand their workings. In the second place, life in our modern communities requires many decisions by the individual as a consumer and a citizen, decisions that are correctly made only through the problem-solving process of science. Extended experience in looking for evidence and reaching judgments on the basis thereof can be provided especially well in the science courses. In the third place, our civilization requires great numbers of specialists in science. Basic to their recruitment and training is a background of interesting science experiences in elementary and secondary schools, experiences that stimulate interests in the relation of man to his environment and in science and scientific careers. The current shortage of scientists and science teachers must be blamed in part on a program

of science instruction in the public schools that has failed to attract larger number of boys and girls to specialized study in this field.

The high school faculty interested in a rounded, vital program of science instruction for all pupils should evaluate the required science courses in terms of such principles as the following:

1. Are the courses sufficiently flexible to permit consideration of new science problems as they develop? Is understanding of the scientific principles underlying technological civilization stressed? This is not to suggest that essential sequences be violated. On the other hand, a problems approach involves the frequent necessity of studying various aspects of a problem or even a new, related problem that may not have been anticipated in the original plan.

2. Are the sources of information used objectively and critically? This requirement of the scientific method seems particularly important in the field of science. For example, advertisements may be studied critically, and courses in consumer science may be built around analysis of consumer goods. In addition to textbook and current reading materials, science courses are making extended use of audiovisual materials, including microprojection in lieu of individual microscopes. The modern emphasis on varied reading activities may also provide excellent opportunity for development of scientific attitudes through analytical reading of various materials relating to the same question. The science courses should give young people some techniques for investigating new scientific questions as they arise.

3. Are scientific (exact) habits of work constantly practiced? Again, such habits are inherent in the scientific method. Their use can be developed by constant checking of purposes, steps, and results on the part of teacher and pupils. Every science course should illustrate how evidence is used in reaching a conclusion.

4. Is science made attractive? Do boys and girls enjoy learning more about our scientific age? Unfortunately, many pupils have the notion that science is "hard" and unpleasant. Although understanding of scientific facts and principles may be difficult for some pupils, all boys and girls can be attracted by the wonders science performs. The mysteries, perhaps, but not the tedious complexities should be highlighted in general courses. Along with knowledge of the exact ways of working that science teaches, respect should be developed for the great contributions these ways of working have made to the world and man. We believe that all teachers have a particular obligation to be enthusiastic about the science courses, and that science teachers in particular need to relate their instruction to the personal concerns and ambitions of their pupils in order to develop interests instead of fears regarding science.

Developing Interests and Skills in Appropriate Aesthetic and Recreational Activities

Several aspects of the secondary school curriculum are devoted at least in part to developing interests and skills in aesthetic and recreational activities. Art, music, and literature courses strive to develop appreciations of beauty as well as some skills in participating in musical and art activities and in reading good books. English courses may also include directed use of radio, television, and the theater for aesthetic and recreational purposes. The physical education program, which is considered in more detail in the next section, strives to develop interests and skills in sports and games for recreational activities. The activities program is also designed in most schools to develop leisure-time interests. Special attention is given below to the particular contribution made by music and art to the aesthetic and recreational purposes of the school's program of general education.

MUSIC

The enrollment in music in grades 9 through 12 has been maintained as a high percentage (30.1 in 1948-1949) of the total school enrollment. This reflects the wide participation of youth in chorus, band, orchestra, and other music activities. In the junior high school grades some type of music experience, either or both vocal music and music appreciation, is generally provided all pupils. Those performing in vocal and instrumental groups usually have additional periods (or substitute these groups for the required courses) in these grades, and may continue their special interests in the senior high school. As we see it, education for musical performance frequently becomes specialized education.

In the junior high school years, music is frequently correlated, as is art, with studies in social studies and language arts. Thus, the music and art of a particular national culture may be heard and seen as that culture is being studied in the social studies or core program. The music or art teacher may develop instruction which parallels the work in geography, history, or literature, or the social studies or core teacher may himself introduce the music and art. Recordings and paintings are used as much as possible to develop appreciation of the aesthetic aspects of the culture under study. As in the elementary school, the emphasis in such work is on understanding different cultural groups through as direct contact as facilities permit with some of the features of the various cultures.

LITERATURE

In the secondary school greatest attention is given to American and English literature, but translations of the literature of other nations may be included. Although many teachers give considerable attention to form in literature, some emphasize more the aesthetic qualities of good literature. All effective English teachers try to develop interests in reading for enjoyment. Accordingly, wide use is made of all sorts of reputable literature, whether current or classical, that is of interest to pupils. Literature is sought for various reading levels so that each pupil may have something to read which will excite his interest and cause him to read more later. Effective teachers also employ recordings, films, transcriptions, and other aids to bring out the qualities of good literature and to relate a people's writings to their ways of living. Use is made of current periodicals and periodical and book digests to develop reading interests and skills. Although the competition of radio, television, pictorial magazines, and commercialized and other recreation is acute, the fact remains that our high school libraries are better stocked and in general, we believe, better used than ever before in the history of American secondary education.

ART

The general inclusion of art as a subject for all pupils in junior high schools is revealed by the fact that enrollment in art courses amounted to 40 per cent of all junior high school pupils in 1948-1949 (estimated from the data). No comparable data are available for enrollments of seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in elementary schools, although in general we know that more adequate art facilities and instruction are generally found in the separate junior high schools. In some of the junior high schools, art is required for a year, a semester, or a six-, nine-, or twelve-week period. In others it may be elected from a group of exploratory subjects including also music, industrial arts, dramatics, typing, and others. In many situations all seventh- or eighth-grade pupils have for a brief period (six to eighteen weeks) an introductory or survey course and then may elect one or more additional courses of a semester's or year's duration. Although drawing and art appreciation are frequently the required subjects, there is a definite trend toward an introductory arts and crafts course providing the student experience in various types of art expression. Thus art appreciation and creative art expression are both available to the typical pupil.

In grades 9 through 12, art is generally regarded as a specialized rather than a general education subject. Enrollments in these grades

have been at about the same percentage (9 per cent in 1948–1949) in the last three national surveys (1928, 1934, and 1949).

Maintaining Health and Physical Fitness

The universal provision for youth's need to maintain health and physical fitness is the program of health and physical education. Most high school pupils spend more time in health and physical education activities than in any other curriculum field except English. Once purely a "recess" or afterschool activity, health and physical education has become an accepted and required part of the program of studies. Physical education as an individual subject has grown more remarkably than any other (from 5.7 per cent of the pupils enrolled in 1922 to 69.4 per cent in 1949). This growth is due in part to the fact that physical education has only recently achieved status as a credit subject. This new-found status, however, seemed endangered in the 1950's, especially after Russia's success with Sputnik in 1957 brought renewed emphasis on increasing enrollments and requirements in courses leading to science and engineering. Many proposals were made for reducing the amount of time given to activities some critics considered nonessential, including physical education, driver training, and athletics. Some reports of reduced requirements in physical education have been noted, although we suspect that the advocates of physical fitness for American youth will vigorously oppose any general reductions.



Physical Fitness Is an Accepted Objective of Secondary Education. Junior and senior high schools now help boys and girls learn to care for their health and physical fitness in both routine and emergency situations. (Courtesy of the John W. Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts.)

Separate courses in health or hygiene, physical education, safety, and driver education are common. Increasingly the latter course is being required in urban centers. No course in driver education was reported in 1934, but in 1949 it was taught in every state. Strong pressures to make the course required have been exerted in many state and local systems.

Probably the greatest variation in practice is to be found in relation to health instruction. In 1949 specific courses in health enrolled about one third of all pupils in junior high schools and about one fourth of all pupils in three- and four-year high schools. Many other pupils, however, received health instruction through their physical education classes. In some schools a certain number of days are devoted to health and the remainder to physical education out of the total time allotment for health and physical education. In other schools there is no organized program of health instruction, although units of work on health topics and problems may be included in science, homemaking, and other subjects.

Common and important needs of youth seem to make health and physical education of great potential significance in the program of general education. As school faculties plan their school's provisions for these needs, they should seek such desirable practices as the following:

1. Each pupil has his own schedule of physical conditioning, although his activities may be with a group. He has his own standards of attainment. Students who are ill or handicapped are not embarrassed by their inability to compete successfully with other students, nor will they be further handicapped by denial of all physical education.

2. Leisure-time activities are sufficiently varied in nature to include something of interest for all youth. They encourage each student to develop skill in more than one activity. Since many adult activities are in mixed groups, boys and girls are encouraged to enjoy together such activities as tennis, bowling, golf, and dancing. Some activities, such as dancing and swimming, are available to all youth; others are optional, and include competitive events. Competition, however, is on a team basis.

3. All activities are under the supervision of competent instructors, who patiently and effectively help students acquire needed skills. Remedial instruction is given students as required.

4. Regardless of how it is organized, health instruction is regarded as an essential and very practical subject. Health is stressed with respect to exercise and athletics, and suitable precautions are taken to ensure good health practices in all physical activities. Health instruction is built around the personal problems of boys and girls, and the emphasis is

always on practical ways of maintaining and improving health rather than on physiology and rules of hygiene.

5. The total program of health and physical education is evaluated by evidence gathered as to (1) the practice by pupils of better health habits, such as those relating to diet, sleep, exercise, cleanliness, physical examinations; (2) improvement of their physical condition as indicated by progress in some agreed-upon schedule of conditioning exercises; and (3) growth of interest in various leisure-time activities involving physical effort.

Providing for Occupational Choices and Plans

There is perhaps more variation in the extent to which secondary schools provide for this last educational need of youth than for any other. Some schools offer specific courses in vocational or occupational guidance. Some of these and others have well-organized and well-staffed guidance programs which provide for individual counseling of youth regarding their occupational choices. In some schools a definite effort is made to have occupational implications emphasized in all subjects. In other schools any help given boys and girls in their occupational choices and plans is purely incidental to the instructional program. In most schools some effort is made, at least through the assembly and extraclass program in general, to provide information about occupations. The practices are so varied that it is difficult and in fact inadvisable to offer any generalizations here as to the extent that this need is met. It is a very important one to adolescents and should have great consideration in the curriculum planning of secondary school faculties. In general, we believe that the best provisions include emphasis in each class on the occupational uses of the subject taught and, especially, a strong guidance program which gives each youth help in his personal occupational planning. We deal with guidance services in the secondary school in detail in Chapter 17.

Vocational aspects of a curriculum area are best emphasized through discussion of the use of the area in particular occupations. Thus, the English teacher points to the use of English in all professions and businesses, in public speaking, writing, journalism, and in the work of foreign correspondents, radio and television announcers, and writers of advertising copy. The teacher of foreign languages points to careers as translators, foreign civil service workers, employees in foreign offices of commercial organizations, as well as writers, research workers, librarians, and teachers. The teacher of social studies can relate the various areas to such diverse occupations as those in government service, international

trade, banking, teaching, law, journalism, historical writing, and the ministry. The contributions of mathematics to such fields as these are emphasized: banking, accounting, statistics, business, engineering, aeronautics, trades, military service, insurance, and real estate. Science can be emphasized as essential in such fields as medicine, geological survey, industrial chemistry, mining, scientific research, food chemistry, dry cleaning, clothing manufacturing, pharmacy, and dietetics, for example. Careers to which music leads include positions as band leader, orchestra leader, glee club director, music teacher, music supervisor, choir director, singer, organist, accompanist, or composer. Girls are interested in such homemaking-related careers as those in dietetics, nursing, teaching, hotel and restaurant services, millinery, tailoring, designing, and modeling. The commercial subjects have direct vocational relations to secretarial, stenographic, and bookkeeping positions, court reporting, accounting, salesmanship, and the many other business positions. The industrial arts, agriculture, and other prevocational subjects are related to a variety of occupations in and outside the community.

In making such emphasis, effective teachers exercise care to avoid extravagant claims for their subjects and simply stimulate their pupils to explore the occupational uses of the information and skills which may ultimately be acquired through study in the field concerned. The teacher's objective is not to recruit workers but rather to aid boys and girls in seeing the multiplicity of occupations available to them and in arriving at some independent judgments regarding their interests and talents relative to occupations. The more exacting testing and counseling which leads to identification of occupational choices is typically done through courses or programs of vocational guidance.

For Further Study

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *What Shall the High Schools Teach?* 1956 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1956.

Chapter 5 describes various concepts of general education and suggests a point of view toward the subject.

Barnard, J. Darrell. *Teaching High-School Science*. What Research Says Series, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, April, 1956.

Summary of research and opinion on the content, teaching methods, and materials of high school science.

Bereday, George Z. F., and Joseph A. Lauwerys, eds. *The Secondary School Curriculum*. The Yearbook of Education, 1958. London: Evans Brothers Ltd.

Several chapters in Section II describe general education objectives and curriculum provisions in individual nations.

Bookwalter, Karl W., and Carolyn W. "Fitness for Secondary School Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 218), 40:1-150 (March, 1956).

This issue is devoted to the topic, including principles and practices in health and physical education programs designed to develop fitness.

Brown, Kenneth E., and Ellsworth S. Obourn. *Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools*. U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 120. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957.

These data effectively demonstrate that, contrary to some statements by critics of the high school, American high school youth commonly do have substantial education in science and mathematics.

Burnett, R. Will. *Teaching Science in the Secondary School*. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1957.

Chapters 11-13 describe approaches by outstanding teachers to teaching science as general education. Other chapters present useful information and philosophy regarding the purposes, status, and methods of science teaching in secondary schools.

Chase, Francis S., and Harold A. Anderson, eds. *The High School in a New Era*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Many of the papers presented at the 1957 conference on the title subject, and published here, relate to curriculum provisions for general education. See especially those by White, Waterman, Schultz, Gustavson, Getzels, Tyler, and Gilchrist.

Dimond, Stanley E. *Schools and the Development of Good Citizens*. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1953.

Report of a five-year study of citizenship education problems in Detroit high schools, with an evaluation of the effects of specific practices in citizenship education.

Educational Policies Commission. *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940.

A popular and influential and still unique report of practices in American high schools related to democratic principles and understandings.

Fay, Leo C. *Reading in the High School*. What Research Says Series, No. 11. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, September, 1956.

Summary of research, practice, and opinion on teaching of reading in high school.

Fehr, Howard F. "High School Mathematics for the Second Half of the 20th Century," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 237), 43:318-324 (April, 1958).

Proposed mathematics program as presented by the author at the 1958 convention of the Association.

———. *Teaching High-School Mathematics*. What Research Says Series, No. 9. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, October, 1955.

Summary of research and opinion as to the content, learning, and teaching of mathematics in high school.

Franzen, Carl G. F. *Foundations of Secondary Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955.

Chapters 12–15 deal with the following objectives, respectively: health, leisure, social living, and economic efficiency.

French, Will, and associates. *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957.

Report of a comprehensive study of the desired outcomes of general education in high schools. These outcomes or “behavioral goals” are listed in detail.

General Education in School and College. A Committee Report by Members of the Faculties of Andover, Exeter, Lawrenceville, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1952.

Report of a plan for providing general education on a continuous basis during the last two years of secondary school and the first two years of college.

Gilchrist, Robert S., Wilbur H. Dutton, and William L. Wrinkle. *Secondary Education for American Democracy*. Rev. ed. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1957.

See Chapters 7 and 8, “What Are the Most Significant Changes Being Made in Courses Used to Provide General Education for Youth?”

Johnson, B. Lamar. *General Education in Action*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1952.

Report of a comprehensive study of general education in California junior colleges.

Johnston, Marjorie C., ed. *Modern Foreign Languages in the High School*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1958, No. 16. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958.

Proceedings of a conference, under U.S. Office of Education auspices, in May, 1957, to consider how modern foreign languages might be redesigned to serve better the national need.

Latimer, John Francis. *What's Happened to Our High Schools?* Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1958.

See Chapter 7 for the author's conclusions that the “essence of democratic education today” must be mathematics, science, foreign languages, history, and English.

Leonard, J. Paul. *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*. Rev. ed. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1953.

See especially Chapter 13, "General Education for All Youth."

National Council of Teachers of English, *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956.

Meeting the needs of the adolescent through English language arts is the basic concern of this book. Chapters 5 and 9 demonstrate in detail how this can be done through literature and writing, respectively.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Adapting the Secondary School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Fifty-second Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

See Alberty's chapter (7) entitled "Designing Programs to Meet the Common Needs of Youth."

———. *The Integration of Educational Experiences*. Fifty-seventh Yearbook, Pt. III. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

See especially Chapter 10, "Illustrative Courses and Programs in Selected Secondary Schools" as to curriculum provisions for assisting the individual's efforts to organize his learnings in meaningful fashion.

Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *The Junior High School Program*. A Joint Study Conducted by the Commission on Secondary Schools and the Commission on Research and Service. Atlanta: The Association, 1958.

See especially Chapters 3 and 4 on the functions and the instructional program of the junior high school, as proposed by a committee of the Association.

United States Office of Education. "Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects." Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education, 1948-50*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951.

This survey of enrollments includes observations regarding trends in the various subjects.

Venable, Tom C. *Patterns in Secondary School Curriculum*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958.

This brief text or guide for study of the secondary school curriculum outlines in Chapters 12-20 the status and trends of the program of studies in the major subject fields.

12

The Core Curriculum Approach to Common Needs

Among the several approaches to meeting the common needs of high school youth is a type of curriculum organization generally called "core curriculum." Although a relatively small proportion of senior high schools use this organization, a great many junior high schools do employ some variant of it. Many teachers and lay citizens who do not understand the purposes and nature of core curriculum have been highly critical of the plan, and in the 1950's some school systems abandoned or reduced its use. Nevertheless, we ourselves confidently expect an increasing number of secondary schools, both junior and senior high school level, to use eventually some features of the core approach. We therefore consider it essential for the prospective teacher to understand the core curriculum.

What Is the Core Curriculum?

The basic idea of the core curriculum is not new in secondary education. Every secondary school in American educational history has required that some core of studies be taken by all its students. In both the traditional course requirements and the modern core curriculum, there is the idea that all pupils *need* certain studies or experiences *in common*. But the core curriculum, correctly organized and developed, provides a more flexible program of learning experiences than portions of the subject curriculum as typically provided in secondary schools.

We should make it very clear that the core curriculum is a plan for organizing only a portion of the school program. Schools that have core

curriculum plans also offer subjects. Pupils enrolled in a two- or three-period core curriculum block take single subjects during their other periods. Indeed, the core curriculum typically teaches in combination certain related subjects, usually language arts and social studies. As we see it, the core curriculum is simply a plan for organizing and scheduling a major portion of the program of general education (that is, the program to meet common youth needs) in a secondary school. Basically it provides a group of pupils, the class, with one teacher for two or more consecutive periods instead of a different teacher for each period.

Many writers and educators use the term in different ways; some use "core curriculum" and "common learnings" synonymously (see Figure 14, page 434). But as we see it, the core curriculum plan is simply one way of organizing a major portion of the general education or common learnings program. For example, the required subjects represent another—the usual—plan for organizing most of the general education program.

Whether a school uses core curriculum or strict departmentalization for scheduling instruction to meet common needs, many features will be no different. For example, there will be elective subjects and possibly some required subjects (physical education and perhaps science and/or mathematics) scheduled outside the core curriculum or in addition to requirements in language arts and social studies. Some type of time schedule, even if double or triple periods are used for the core curriculum, is found in all secondary schools. So is a system of marks, reports, and records. And the activity program—clubs, student organizations, and other noncredit activities—is typically independent of any plan of organizing classroom instruction. Perhaps we can see better the similarities and differences in the core and subject organizations by examining in some detail the characteristics of the core organization.

Characteristics of Core Curriculum Organization

Although it is possible to visit schools using a core schedule and fail to find all of the characteristics ascribed here to the core curriculum, we ourselves have observed that in general there are several features of core organization so common as to be considered typical. Each of these features is described in this section.

A LONGER, MORE FLEXIBLE CLASS PERIOD

That the core curriculum provides a longer and more flexible instructional period is illustrated by the following daily programs a high school pupil might have under a completely departmentalized plan as contrasted with one under a core curriculum plan:

PERIOD	COMPLETELY DEPARTMENTALIZED	CORE PLAN
I	Subject A (required)	} Core
II	Subject B (required)	
III	Study hall	Study hall
IV	Subject C (elective)	Subject C (elective)
V	Physical education (required)	Physical education (required)
VI	Subject D (elective)	Subject D (elective)

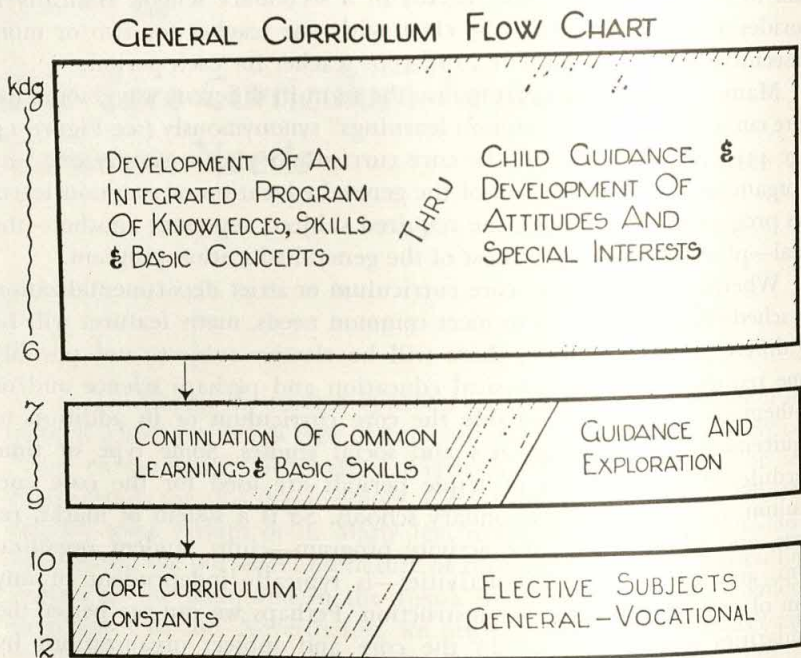


Figure 14. General Curriculum Flow Chart. (From Walter H. Gaumnitz and Committee, *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis*, U.S. Office of Education Misc. No. 21, 1955, p. 53. This publication credits as the original source, "Charting the Curriculum in New York State Schools," Albany, New York State Education Department, 1954, pp. 5-7, and quotes the following explanation:

The general curriculum flow chart shows how the development of common learnings and basic skills permeates the entire elementary-secondary school program in New York State.

The elementary school builds a broad, comprehensive foundation of these skills in all areas of the curriculum. Hachured areas indicate a fully coordinated program at the elementary school level; a continuation of common learnings and basic skills in the junior high school years, flowing into the core curriculum of grades 10 through 12.

The chart also illustrates the point at which specialization begins and the expansion of individual interests and elective courses up through the last year of the high school program. It was prepared by and for use in New York State.)

Under the completely departmentalized schedule in this illustration the day is divided into six equal divisions, whereas under the other plan one third (that is, a double period) of the school day is given to the core program and the remainder is divided into four equal periods. In some schools, especially junior high schools, the homeroom or the study period of the core class may also be under the supervision of the core teacher to extend the opportunity for guidance and a flexible instructional program.

The core curriculum plan is further illustrated in Table 37 by hypothetical daily schedules (by periods) of three students and four teachers in a junior high school having a core curriculum. In this latter illustration seventh-grade core includes content from English, social studies, and science; eighth-grade content from English and social studies. The plan does *not* assume simply teaching each of these subjects one period.

The high school curriculum has long been criticized because of its inflexible scheduling, which forces youngsters to move from one class to another too frequently. The effect of such scheduling is sometimes to emphasize an artificial compartmentalization of knowledge, to justify regimentation procedures within the classroom, and to prevent the organization of learning experiences that cannot be completed within the usual period of about forty to fifty minutes clear of passing from class to class. Thus a longer and more flexible period is desired to permit less hurried exploration of material and information related to the problem at hand, a less formal, even if slower, discussion and study procedure, and more experiences that cannot be confined to a single period. These longer and more flexible periods are provided by various methods described in the following paragraphs.

1. Two or three or even more class periods are devoted to the core program, as illustrated in Table 37. For example, in grade 7 the teacher has one group for three periods instead of a different group each period, and the group has one teacher instead of three. These three periods may be secured by substitution for three subjects or for two subjects and one study period; or two periods by substitution for two subjects or for one subject and one study period. Probably a desirable plan is to give not more than one half (three periods) of the school day in junior high schools to the core, and one third (two periods) in senior high.

2. Homeroom periods, counseling periods, and the study periods are scheduled to provide for a lengthened period with the same teacher. In such an arrangement, a given core group will have the same teacher for homeroom, counseling, study hall, and social studies. Although only one subject is scheduled, the class has the equivalent of a double period or better with the same teacher. The ultimate aim of the core program is to

TABLE 37

*Illustrative Pupil and Teacher Schedules in a Core Curriculum
(Junior High School)*

	PUPIL A GRADE 7	PUPIL B GRADE 8	PUPIL C GRADE 9	TEACHER A	TEACHER B	TEACHER C	TEACHER D
Period I	Core English Social studies Science	Core English Social studies	Core English Social studies	7th Grade Core	8th Grade Core	9th Grade Core	8th Grade Core
Period II							
Period III		Math	General science 9		Planning	General math	Spanish 9
Period IV	Math	Dramatics (M-W) Reading (T-Th-F)	General math 9	8th Grade Core	9th Grade Core	9th Grade Core	Planning
Period V	Shop (boy) or Home ec. (girl)	Art ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.) Music ($\frac{1}{2}$ yr.)	Phys. ed.				Spanish 9
Period VI	Phys. ed.	Phys. ed.	Spanish	Planning	Dramatics 8	Planning	Spanish 9

absorb many of the usual activities of homeroom, counseling, and study hall into the core, so that the core teacher can work with his pupils in many relationships.

3. A common but probably less desirable practice is some kind of block scheduling in which two teachers, for example, have two groups of youngsters in common. Each teacher is a specialist in one subject, and is assigned each group for this subject. By means of cooperative planning, exchange of classes, combination of classes, use of teachers' planning periods to extend the time of one teacher with a particular group, and similar procedures, this arrangement may have a good many advantages over the usual subject schedule. This plan is especially promising at the senior high school level. It works, schedulewise, like this:

PERIOD	TEACHER A	TEACHER B
Homeroom	Class 11-1	Class 11-2
1	English 11-1	History 11-2
2	English 11-2	History 11-1
3	Planning	Planning

Thus, Teacher A may have her English 11-1 class for homeroom and two class periods when Teacher B has his History 11-2 class for the same two periods. In this way by cooperation between the two teachers, each can arrange extended field trips, and the classes may be brought together with both teachers on occasion. A common planning period facilitates cooperative work by the teachers.

4. Still another plan provides for one teacher's having responsibility for a core group for two or more periods, but with freedom to call on another teacher for special work as necessary. For example, a junior high school art teacher may be given a special period to help core classes in the preparation of materials relating to their studies. Or an English teacher may have a laboratory period to serve as a resource to core groups. Administrative arrangements may provide that the other teacher be assigned to a core group as part of the teaching load or else have free time available for use by various core groups. Either arrangement is costly in terms of teacher load, of course, and neither has been widely employed.

A CLOSER TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP

One of the major purposes of the core curriculum plan is to provide for the guidance of each student by a teacher who knows him well. Compare the knowledge a teacher might have of a student he sees, among 149 others, when he is teaching five classes of English one hour a day, with his knowledge of a student he sees, among only 59 others, when he is teaching only two core groups a day. The core teacher may have specialized help from counselors, class advisers, and specialists in occupa-

tional guidance, but the core teacher should know each student better than does any other school worker. Note how one ninth-grade core class member defined core:

"Core, what does this word mean to me? Well, to start off, it means a sort of place to call home while you are at school. It is a place where you can stop in anytime almost and talk with the teacher or just say, 'hello.' To a person just starting high school you like to know that you have a class you can go to without worrying about the time. You are with a teacher for two hours and you also get to know your classmates better. Another thing is that you do not spend all your time getting out material and putting it away."¹

Among the most serious shortcomings of the traditional high school curriculum is the difficulty of sustained personal relationships between teachers and pupils under the pressure of schedules and movement of classes, as well as the inadequate guidance students are characteristically given with their educational, vocational, and personal problems. The problem is particularly acute because of the considerable change that frequently occurs in school organization at the end of the elementary school. The beginner in secondary education usually goes abruptly from a sixth- or eighth-grade situation where he has been a member of a group of about thirty working with the same teacher throughout the day and year, to a seventh- or ninth-grade situation where he may have as many as six different teachers each day and be a member of as many different class groups. Consequently, all too frequently he suddenly is without a person who knows him well, to whom he can go for advice and help. Establishment of short homeroom periods, employment of counselors who perhaps can give him two twenty-minute interviews in the course of the year, and similar inadequate devices do not replace the close relationship with the one teacher of elementary school days. The core teacher who has fewer students for a longer period of time is ideally situated to help pupils with the transition from elementary to high school.

A PROBLEM-CENTERED INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Perhaps the major dissatisfaction with the subject curriculum is its characteristic lack of relationship to the problems that students experience or anticipate. It is certainly possible for most subjects to contribute to these problems, but the influence of logically organized subject matter is so great that teachers tend to follow this organization, far removed as it may be from life-problem situations. Furthermore, few needs of students fit neatly into any one category of subject matter. Several subjects may have more or less direct relationships to a particular

¹Quoted in "A Core Program in Action" (Oak Ridge, Tenn.: Oak Ridge Schools, 1953), p. 9. Mimeographed.



Major Social Problems Can Be Studied by Junior High School Pupils. In this junior high school, in a great lumbering state, boys and girls are learning the steps to be taken in conservation of forest resources. (Courtesy of the Nathan Eckstein Junior High School, Seattle, Washington.)

need, but at no one place in the subject curriculum is it exhaustively attacked. Consideration of many needs, such as those for study habits and family life education, tends to be piecemeal and in general inadequate.

Core curriculum plans are likely to disregard traditional subject-matter compartments and, instead, bring such subject matter as needed and available to bear on the problem at hand. Examination of some of the problems around which instruction is organized in illustrative core plans indicates that the organizing centers are potentially more real to students than are the traditional subject-matter divisions of which they are independent. Illustrative of the areas included in core programs is a list published by the faculty of the University School of The Ohio State University and explained as follows:

THE CORE STRUCTURE

The structure or design of the core curriculum is defined, to a large degree, by a number of broad problem areas out of which the learning units planned

by teachers and students evolve. Neither problem areas nor learning units are currently "pegged" at any specific grade level. If a learning unit which does not fall within these problem areas develops in any core group, the grade staff (made up of all of the teachers who come in contact with students at that grade level) may approve the unit if it deems it desirable. This plan seems to permit maximum flexibility in the core structure and encourages a continuous appraisal and refinement of the problem areas. At the same time it provides for a kind of direction and "balance" in the school's general education program.

THE CORE PROBLEM AREAS

From its participation in the Eight-Year Study, University School developed a concept of structure for its core based on three large focal points of adolescent concern:

1. Personal Living—problems related to growing up.
2. Personal-Social Living—problems related to living with and understanding others.
3. Social-Civic-Economic Living—problems related to living in and understanding the immediate and wider community and world.

Through a continued study of adolescents enrolled in the school, an examination of the kinds of learning units that developed in the school when the three focal points listed above were used to indicate the core problem areas, and a survey of recent research on adolescent growth and development, the staff agreed to the following problem areas for the 1954-55 and 1955-56 school years:

1. Problems of School Living
2. Problems of Healthful Living
3. Problems of Communication
4. Problems of Government
5. Problems of Producer-Consumer Economics
6. Problems of Conservation of Resources
7. Problems of Values and Beliefs
8. Problems of Human Behavior (Understanding Self and Others)
9. Problems of Conflicting Ideologies
10. Problems of Education
11. Problems of Occupations (Selection and Preparation for)
12. Problems of a Developing Cultural Heritage
13. Problems of Social Relationships in a Rapidly Changing Society
14. Problems of Living in the Atomic Age²

Study of the organization of various core plans in existence suggests several conclusions:

1. The typical organizing center for instruction in the core curriculum is a problem experienced or anticipated by young persons, and

² Faculty of the University School, The Ohio State University, "A Description of Curricular Experiences, Grades 7-12" (Columbus: The School, 1956), pp. 17-18. Mimeographed.

one for which appropriate solutions can be found by pupils and teacher through use of the available resources. Thus "Orientation to Junior High" is a wholly appropriate beginning point in seventh-grade core.

2. Although the organizing centers in the core are independent of subject organization, the core typically combines two or more subjects and includes more material from these than from other subjects. English and social studies are most commonly combined in the core, although science is sometimes involved. Neither subject has to be neglected, but the material is organized more meaningfully.

3. The organizing center may be related to the subject matter of various subjects but it may also be selected from a strict subject organization, if that approach is preferred by the teachers. Thus the way in which the problem is attacked is a more significant criterion for evaluating the vitality of the core curriculum than the mere designation of the problem.

4. The final selection of actual problems for study is done in the teaching situation rather than according to some predetermined plan of organization. Otherwise the approach may be as formalized as the chronological study of history. Chronology is important, and the effective core teacher does not neglect it. But he plans with his pupils for a thorough study of aspects of history that they find especially interesting and thereby are led to relate to events before and afterward.

USE OF COOPERATIVE PLANNING PROCEDURES

The traditional secondary school classroom has few characteristics of a democratic situation. One person, the teacher, gives the directions, makes the plans, evaluates the outcomes. The other persons present, the students, recite when called on, undertake the work assigned, and not infrequently devote their planning to ways and means of evading assignments and regulations concerning classroom organization. In marked contrast with this classroom is one where teacher and youth divide responsibility for classroom management, and share in the planning, execution, and evaluation of all classroom activities. In this cooperative atmosphere, youth have freedom to move about, to work individually or in small groups.

Such cooperative planning may exist in any classroom, whether organized on a subject or a core basis. Other features of the core plan, however, greatly facilitate this type of working relationship. The more deliberate discussion of a cooperative group proceeds more freely when there is longer time. Teachers encourage the study of pupil-suggested problems when there is no inflexible definition of subject matter to limit the boundaries of study and to press the class "to cover the subject." The teacher may more easily become a fellow investigator when the

problem at hand is not definitely covered by the textbook or course of study. People who are well acquainted plan and work together better, generally speaking, than those whose acquaintanceship is cut short by the subject schedule.

Where and how cooperative planning takes place in the core class is illustrated in a later section which describes a core class in action.

USE OF VARIED LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Learning experiences may be as varied in a history class as in a core class, but characteristically they are not. The usual learning experiences in the subject organization are reading and listening, whereas the core curriculum more frequently adds seeing and doing. The nature of learning experiences in the subject class is restricted by the time available, the logical organization of subject matter and textbooks, and traditional procedures of recitation, testing, and drill. None of these restrictions need exist in the core curriculum plan. Types of experiences widely found in core classes include

1. Round-table discussions
2. Listening to and discussing radio broadcasts
3. Seeing and discussing films
4. Carrying on committee studies
5. Visiting community institutions individually and in groups
6. Conducting surveys in school and community
7. Reading varied materials in classroom and library
8. Writing letters, editorials, articles, school publications
9. Visiting and conducting other classes
10. Preparing blackboard summaries of discussions
11. Arranging school assemblies and programs
12. Listening to speakers and consultants
13. Collecting clippings, pamphlets, and other materials
14. Operating school services
15. Reporting results of investigations to the group

Such experiences are generally regarded as possessing more educational value for the average student than the reading-reciting procedure too typical of secondary school classes. Although the core curriculum plan recognizes the importance of reading and drill, it seeks to use reading as one method of learning and to make reading more interesting and meaningful by relating it to firsthand experience and to problems of significance to readers. We should emphasize that all these experiences are possible in any class but are greatly limited by the time factor in the single-period class. Time is indeed the great advantage of the core organization.

The Core Curriculum in Practice

Some unusually helpful materials provided us by the Oak Ridge (Tennessee) schools will describe one core curriculum in practice. Several years ago a ninth-grade core class in the Oak Ridge High School invited their parents to a "pot luck" supper at which time the students described and evaluated their year's work. The students later prepared a script of their report in such form as they could remember it. An editing committee of the class then prepared the material for publication. The portion of this publication which reproduced the students' report to their parents is herewith quoted in full:

Jimmy: Tonight we would like you to sit in on an evaluative session of our core class. At the completion of each nine-week period we summarize our accomplishments and make plans for the next nine-week period. We will tell you what we have done and ask you to help us plan for the remaining class time.

The framework of freshman core is planned by the Oak Ridge High School Core Department and is approved by the Tennessee State Department of Education. Included in this program are grammar, literature, civics, personality development, vocations, and world geography. We frequently combine social studies, literature, and grammar, but at evaluation time we separate them so that we may see specific achievements.

In the fall of this year we selected, as our theme for the year, "Critical Thinking Makes Wise Decisions." It was the goal of each student to develop in critical thinking ability.

John: At first there was an objection to the word "critical" until it was decided that it did not necessarily mean to find fault but to find both the good and bad points, and especially the determination of facts.

Jimmy: In September, with elections coming up, it was decided by the class that we would begin our civics unit with national government and political parties. Keeping in mind our theme of critical thinking, we decided to try to find factual information and to differentiate between propaganda and facts.

Virginia: I'm sure our parents will remember our news commentator study. Each of us selected a radio news commentator to whom we would listen. Besides listening for news and the issue of the campaigns for the purpose of class discussion, we asked ourselves the following questions about the program: Were only facts presented? Did the reporter give an interpretation of the news? Was his selection of news complete, and chiefly a summary, or did he just select items that agreed with his viewpoint?

Phyllis: Along with his style of delivery, we watched for errors in gram-

mar and mispronounced words, since people often make improvements by observing the mistakes of others.

Thomas: Another way we studied campaign issues was by reading newspapers and magazines. We found that a newspaper could print facts and still give an unfair picture. A Republican paper might give front page headline space to an Eisenhower speech but a reply to Stevenson would be placed on a back page.

John: We felt that much could be gained from actual party participation. Some of our class members joined the Students for Ike Club, while others helped the Students for Stevenson group. The school was *not* the sponsor of these groups. They were sponsored by the local political parties.

Beryl: Firsthand information is the next best thing to actual participation. A local lawyer, a delegate to a national convention, came to our class and told us some of his experiences at a nominating convention.

Pal: Throughout the election we remained good friends in spite of a few prejudices. We made it a point to remember that all controversial issues have two sides. At the conclusion of our project, we took a journalism test on the national election. The grades for our ninth-grade class compared favorably with those of seniors throughout the United States.

Jimmy: With the heat of elections passing, we turned to the local scene to continue our study of government. We divided into groups to study past events, present problems, and government of Oak Ridge. Our library furnished a good source of background information. In the library we found bound copies of *The Oak Ridge Journal* and *The Oak Ridger* available for student research.

Our study of government in Oak Ridge included the schools, fire and police departments, welfare and recreation, health and sanitation, and town council. This study in turn branched out into a study of churches, Red Cross, community chest, and civic clubs. Closely following these came our study of community problems, such as crime, conservation, fire prevention, housing, health, alcoholism, narcotics, child labor, civil defense, and safety.

LuRuth: Before we could discuss some of these problems intelligently, we found that we needed more background information. We had introductions to the *Readers' Guide* and the vertical files in our library. We also used the card catalog and class references or textbooks.

Charlie: We found that although the library helped, a great deal of the information that we wanted had not been written. We found that to secure this information interviews with some of the officials in Oak Ridge were necessary. Results were reported back to the class in both oral and written form.

Sonja: Our committee's project was welfare in Oak Ridge. We tried to find out how their work is done and how the people of Oak

Ridge benefit by it. To do this it was necessary to visit the Red Cross and Oak Ridge Welfare Department, and to interview workers with the community chest. Members of civic clubs were also interviewed by other members of the class to see what welfare work they did in Oak Ridge. This was reported back to our committee.

Anna Gail: Beryl and I made a directory of churches in Oak Ridge. This included names of churches, membership, and their local history. We also made a study of land sale to churches and tried to point out some of the influences this had on the community of Oak Ridge.

Virginia: And do you remember the Town Council and Charter Committee meetings? Our class has been interested in the council this year. Many of us have attended several town council meetings and it is the goal for every individual to attend at least one session. We also became equally interested in proposals for incorporation and the kind of charter which would likely be best for Oak Ridge.

Beryl: Recently our committee attended one of our PTA meetings. The subject for discussion was one that interested our class. We heard a debate on whether or not the Oak Ridge school system should be fiscally independent.

LuRuth: As we studied the government of Oak Ridge and some of our local problems, we began to wonder how foreign-born persons felt about the United States and Oak Ridge in particular. To find this out, we invited Mrs. Paul Weaver, a recently naturalized citizen, to visit our class. She was born in England and has lived in Canada and Germany. After her visit I was prouder than ever to be a citizen of the United States and I think I understand better the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship.

Jimmy: We have studied not only national and local government, but also county government with particular attention to Anderson County. We started with a history of Anderson County and its relation to Oak Ridge. As the study of county government developed, we felt that a trip to the courthouse, the center of county government in Anderson County, would be appropriate and beneficial to us in this study.

Hayes: Our courthouse is an old, two-story, brick building built in 1890. There are three entrances to this drab structure and a hall runs through the middle. Very steep stairs lead to the second floor from the corridor. All kinds of people were seen wandering around the corridors. Equipment in the offices seemed old and obsolete. The chief asset seemed to be the people working in the offices. They were friendly and cooperative.

Norma: Much class planning goes into a field trip. Our class divided into committees for our study. Each committee selected one official to interview while we were in Clinton. We wrote letters arranging interview time and then selected what questions we would ask.

Jimmy: We also felt we needed an orientation to our county government, the various offices and office holders, before we made this

field trip. Our circuit Court Clerk gave us this background and provided introduction to officials in Clinton.

Beryl:

Without the courtesies shown us by the officers and other courthouse employees, we would never have been as successful with our study as we were. They were all so friendly, willing and helpful. Our County Court Clerk gave us books, reports, and other information, which we found helpful in writing up our study.

Jimmy:

Also in our study of county government we found that county court is not a judicial body, but an administrative and legislative group. It is the court members' duty to elect various county officers, set the tax rate, and adopt an annual budget. The chairman of the county court is the County Judge. Besides his administrative duties he has judicial duties, and also serves as purchasing agent for the county.

In recent years there has been much that was undesirable in county government. There are many reasons for corruptness and inefficiency. Poorly qualified officers are frequently found where salaries are low. Also there is a definite excess of county officers. County government should be more centralized. Many counties throughout the nation have laid aside old ideas for one of these three forms of government: county-managers, commissioner, or board of supervisors. These forms of county government all hold to the principles of better paid and more highly trained officials, and a highly centralized system of county government.

David:

Some members of the class interviewed officials by telephone. One member interviewed the Oak Ridge Justices of the Peace. They had some worth-while suggestions and recommendations. One offered to take one or two boys to Clinton to a special meeting of County Court. He had no improvements he would like to make at that time. However, the other did. He wanted to have the county books audited, something that has not been done in some time.

Robert:

In our discussion of County Court we mustn't forget the thank-you letters we wrote after our return to school. Also, naturally some questions arose from our inquiries for information about county government. We thought it would be nice to have an informed person to help us clarify some of the things that had puzzled us. We invited the County Court Clerk to visit our class. He was very informative and helped us considerably.

Jimmy:

In our study of county government we noticed the very distinctive relationship between the state legislature and county government. Anderson County has undergone many major changes through bills introduced as private acts of our representatives. Included are such things as reduction of membership in County Court from twenty-seven members to thirteen and then an increase to sixteen. The right of Justices of the Peace to try cases was abolished and a Trial Justice Court was established. Also the salary of the County Judge was doubled by a private act.

David: Near the beginning of the year in connection with our study of national government, we saw a film on "How to Read a Newspaper." This again helped us with our projects on state government. We made a study of the State Legislature by clipping newspaper articles and putting them together in a scrapbook. We did this by following a story through several issues of the newspaper. We also compared the editorial policy of two or more newspapers. The scrapbooks contained an evaluation, table of contents, chapter and article headings, and a bibliography.

Bobby: In the fall we each wrote an autobiography which started our study of grammar. Many of the mistakes we found were in writing sentence fragments or run-on sentences instead of clear, well-constructed sentences.

Hayes: We then felt the need for diagraming sentences. This helped us to see that each sentence always should have a subject and a predicate. It also helped us to tell the difference between adjectives and adverbs. From this we advanced into the diagraming of predicate nominatives, direct and indirect objects, and prepositional phrases. We learned from this study the correct case to use when dealing with pronouns.

Wayne: We also worked quite a bit on capitalization, punctuation, and spelling. Some of the ways we studied spelling were:

1. Spelling rules
2. Words most frequently misspelled by high school students
3. Compound and hyphenated words
4. Possessives and plurals
5. One thousand words most frequently used in adult writing
6. Personal dictionaries to help us build our vocabulary, and
7. Last, but not least, Mrs. Ledgerwood has kept a list of words we have misspelled on written assignments. We felt that the most important words to learn to spell were those we use and miss.

George: We have also tried to improve our paragraph arrangement. We paid special attention to topic sentences and tried to develop them into good paragraphs.

Gale: We also read many books and short stories this year. Our theme in literature was "Reading for Enjoyment." However, much of our reading for enjoyment related to our study of civics and community problems.

George: We had lots of fun reading poetry and drawing illustrations. We would select our favorite author and then take one of his poems and illustrate it on paper. We also saw films on "How to Read Poetry" and "Let's Read Poetry." Many chose Longfellow and Whittier as their favorite poets. For their benefit we saw the biographical films.

We read poems together in class and tried to decide what the

poet was doing or thinking about when he wrote the poem. We found a poet would write a very sad poem if there had been a death in his family. I think everyone enjoyed our study of poetry.

John: Some of us prepared to write our own poems. Instead of illustrating a poem, one member wrote the following poem from a picture of Norris Dam:

THE HYDRO-ELECTRIC DAM

A gigantic mass of concrete and steel,
Water, twisting and turning like mad from the spillways,
Making electricity and making you feel
That this is a sight you'll remember for always.

It makes the great power used in our daily living
By making the tremendous dynamos go;
Great cities are on its great power thriving;
It makes motors run; makes electric lights glow.

Of this great machine, let my words make a picture.
Of this gigantic mechanism, the machine of the hour,
The colossal hydro-electric dam's structure
A symbol of strength; the symbol of power.

Beryl: We also studied *As You Like It*, one of Shakespeare's plays. We read the play together in class, selected favorite passages, and wrote character sketches. We read the play at the time the Barter Theater presented it on the stage in Oak Ridge and as many of us as could saw the play.

Robert: Although our reading was for enjoyment, it also frequently tied in with our social studies. The book, *David Copperfield*, showed problems of marriage, children in the home with stepparents, child labor, and prisons. We also read the books and saw the films, *Kidnapped* and *Treasure Island*.

Charlie: I enjoyed listening to Richard Chase when he was here and am looking forward to reading *Jack Tales* and *Grandfather Tales*. I like American folk stories.

LuRuth: I heard Frank Schooner, one of Howard Pyle's students, talk when he was here. It is interesting to know something about the illustrator of a book.

Thomas: We used the library's resources in our vocation study. Much of our material came from the vertical files and *Readers' Guide*. We also used the card catalog to find individual reference books. We made both oral and written reports on our vocations, saw a film on how to select your vocation, took tests on occupational aptitude and interest, asked the counselor to visit our class to explain the test, and attended our choices of conferences during career conference week. We were allowed to choose four conferences from a total of sixty-four.

Jimmy:

This is a brief summary of some of the activities so far this year. Our plans for the next nine weeks include a study of world geography, both economic and political. We plan to start with world government and the United States and branch out. We will center our literature study around the literature of other countries.

At this time we would like to hear suggestions from our parents as to what else we should include in our study for the next nine weeks. Also we would like to receive any questions or comments in connection with our study of the previous nine weeks.³

How Does the Core Curriculum Provide for the Common Needs of Pupils?

We have emphasized the fact that the core curriculum plan is one way of providing at least in part for the common needs of pupils, that is, for their general education. How the plan serves this purpose cannot be answered in general terms very satisfactorily. Readers who are really interested in the core curriculum idea would do well to visit or read about a particular school having some type of core organization. By examining whatever plan of scope and sequence (that is, the areas of study included and their relative order) exists in this school and, if possible, studying the progression of a core group from day to day, one might arrive at a good judgment of the relation of the core curriculum and the common needs of pupils. As an illustration of one way of making such a study one core program's suggested scope and sequence will be briefly examined in the light of the educational needs of adolescents listed in Chapter 10.

A core program, called "Basic Education," was developed on an experimental basis in two junior high schools in the Dade County (Florida—Miami and neighboring communities) Schools in 1950. This program has included most seventh grades and some eighth and ninth grades in the system, although the general pattern has come to be a two-hour block of language arts and social studies in grade 7. In 1956 a "Basic Education Scope and Sequence Chart" (wall-size, and impossible to reproduce satisfactorily here) was prepared by committees of the junior high schools to establish some pattern for the program. Four general areas of the core program defined its scope as follows:

- Knowledge of the world in which we live
- Development of social responsibility
- Realization of science's impact upon our civilization
(for triple-period classes in grade 7)
- Command of skills in the English language

³"A Core Program in Action," pp. 2-8. Reproduced by permission of Bertis E. Capehart, then Superintendent of Schools in Oak Ridge.

The chart is organized in terms of these four areas, with further listing under each of subareas, desirable outcomes, and centers of emphasis. For example, the general area of language skills is divided into five subareas as follows: (1) improving reading skills, (2) practicing writing skills, (3) developing speaking skills, (4) extending spelling skills, and (5) applying listening skills. In regard to "improving reading skills," the chart lists the following desirable outcomes:

- Understands and uses mechanics of reading
- Uses library for helpful information and recreation
- Reads with understanding both orally and silently
- Evaluates what he reads

Centers of emphasis in grade 7 related to these outcomes are

- Word attack skills
- Maps, cartoons, pictures
- Word relationships and textbook organization
- Card catalogues, encyclopedias, dictionaries, almanacs
- Vertical files
- Specialized vocabulary, pronunciation of words
- Summarization
- Author's intent

We may now relate the scope and sequence of this program, as shown in the chart for grade 7, to the common needs of the junior high school pupils concerned.

ADEQUATE SKILLS IN READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING

Certainly this program provides for the communication skills as adequately as would the single-period, departmentalized organization. As illustrated above, language skills comprise one major area of the scope of the program. Chartwise, the listing of desirable outcomes and centers of emphasis in this area takes about half of the space. In classroom practice, English is taught directly as it would be in the departmentalized classes in some Basic Education combinations, and in the other classes there is constant reference to language skills and their practice. Some tests given in the school system have indicated that pupils who have had Basic Education instead of the single-period subjects achieve better reading skills. This contribution of the core program to the basic skills may be explained in two ways: first, the core teacher has fewer pupils for a longer period of time and should be expected to know their difficulties and excellencies in the skills better; and, second, the core program provides better opportunities for using language skills with reference to an area of content or a unit of work or a problem in social studies.

ADULT ACTIVITIES AS HOMEMAKERS, CITIZENS, AND CONSUMERS

In the program we are analyzing there is no direct reference to adult activities of homemaking and consuming goods and services, as these are cared for in other curriculum areas, especially at the senior high school level. The Basic Education program does provide for civic training in each of the grades. For example, under the area of "Knowledge of the world in which we live" the following relevant centers of emphasis are listed for grade 7:

Understanding the meaning of the pledge of allegiance; American holidays; ways of living in the United States; student government participation—nominating, voting for, and working with chosen officers.

That is, the suggested emphases in the Basic Education program are not greatly different from those which would be found in a separate social studies program. The major difference is that the closer and longer relationship of pupils with each other and the teacher makes possible a more flexible and meaningful study of many of these concepts and practices of citizenship than can be done in the departmentalized program.

USE OF EFFECTIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING AND LEARNING PROCESSES

No scope and sequence chart can indicate very satisfactorily whether pupils in their classroom situations are really using effective problem-solving and learning processes. As already noted in this chapter, the problem-solving approach to teaching and learning can be as true of separate-period classes as of core classes. Our observation indicates that, in general, core teachers use more of the problem approach because they feel less restricted by requirements specifying the ground to be covered. It is significant that the Dade County chart includes this phrase as a center of emphasis in all grades relating to the area of "development of social responsibility": "Teacher-pupil planning in classroom learning experiences." Teacher-pupil planning can be and is more common in the longer period classes where pupils and teachers become better acquainted and freer to express choices.

UNDERSTANDING OF THE WORLD AND MAN

As noted, "Knowledge of the world in which we live" and "Realization of science's impact upon our civilization" are two of the four main areas of the Dade County suggested scope and sequence. Actually, science has been included in Basic Education only at the seventh grade, and in

only some of the classes at this grade. In addition to the many centers of emphasis relating to life in Florida and the United States, several are listed which relate to systematic study of world geography in the seventh-grade classes.

OTHER NEEDS

The Basic Education program attempts to contribute only in part, if at all, to the other three needs cited in Chapter 10:

Choice of and skill in appropriate aesthetic and recreational activities

Maintaining good health and physical fitness

Choice of an occupation and preparation for further, related study and/or occupational training

In the seventh grade, in connection with the study of ways of living, there is frequently some study of different people's art, music, literature, and ways of making a living. If science and health are included in a three-hour block in the seventh grade, the following are among the suggested centers of emphasis:

Safety precautions

Processes and functions of living things

Diet and growth

Physical examination

One of the frequent shortcomings of the core program is a tendency to include many areas superficially. For this reason we consider the scope and sequence plan of the Dade County junior high schools helpful, for it does not in general make overambitious suggestions as to areas for inclusion. By and large, the chart includes most of the centers of emphasis one would find in the separate subjects concerned but with an indication of more relatedness than is typical of the departmentalized program.

How does this particular core plan provide for the common needs of pupils? In summary, it provides for only some of the common needs and these only in part. This we consider a virtue rather than a shortcoming. The centers of emphasis indicate that the Basic Education plan includes at least as much consideration to relevant common needs as would the separate subjects. Our judgment is that the plan potentially makes somewhat better provision than do the separate subjects primarily because of the longer period with its resulting smaller number of pupils per day for each teacher. Undoubtedly some classes are taught almost as in a separate subject organization, and undoubtedly some classes do not begin to realize the potentialities of the core. Nevertheless, we believe that the advantages can be very great, and that for this reason core organization should be encouraged.

Evaluating the Core Curriculum

Because it is relatively new and represents a fundamental break from traditional departmentalization, the core curriculum has been widely questioned and criticized. It is difficult and, we think, unwise to make sweeping generalizations as to its superiority to other plans of curriculum organization. One simply cannot compare the values of the core curriculum with those of the subject organization as one would compare the use of textbooks with field trips because core and subjects are not so different. We can, however, review some of the research that has been done in particular situations.

In the Oak Ridge Schools careful studies have been made of the core program. Citing these studies, the superintendent of schools in April, 1956, made these statements:

... These studies compared matched pairs of pupils in the core classes and non-core English classes, and showed conclusively that skills in the language arts—speaking, reading, writing, and listening—and in the social studies—understanding graphs, maps, use of index and tables of contents—were learned effectively and efficiently by core classes. . . .

The evaluation of the core classes in the Oak Ridge High School provides evidence of equal or improved competence in the basic skills plus other outcomes and values more intangible and difficult to measure. Reference is made especially to improvement in critical thinking, improved social attitudes, better work habits and more effective study skills, and better civic behavior. One might observe that organization of instruction on a problem-solving basis seems more feasible to a teacher who has two, or at the most three, classes a day, than it does to a teacher with five classes.⁴

On May 11, 1954, the Board of Superintendents of the New York City Schools accepted the core curriculum as "one method among several, of organization and teaching appropriate to secondary schools" and directed

That the schools now conducting classes in the Core Curriculum be permitted to continue if they so desire.

That budgetary allowances be requested in amounts necessary to enable the Core Curriculum to proceed on these bases.

That the program of teacher-training be continued and expanded.

That continued supervision be given to the improvement and development of the Core Curriculum.⁵

⁴ Bertis E. Capehart, "What Do They Learn in Core?" *Oak Ridge School News*, 12:1, 4 (April, 1956).

⁵ "Core Curriculum Progress," *Curriculum and Materials*, 9:1 (November-December, 1954).

This action was stated in this report to have been based on the following conclusions of a study by the New York Bureau of Educational Research:

1. The evidence from standardized tests indicates that pupils in the core program have achieved competence in the basic skills as effectively as pupils under more conventional high-school instructional programs.
2. The evidence from attitude scales, sociometric techniques and observations indicates that the social and personal adjustment of the pupils is served as effectively, if not more so, by the core program as by the conventional program.
3. The observations made, as well as the self-evaluation by the core teacher, indicate that the core teachers compared with conventional subject-matter teachers know more about their pupils and that the friendly climate of the core classroom emphasizes guidance toward adjustment to high school; also noted were the high morale and professional alertness of core program teachers.⁶

The United States Office of Education published in 1956 a summary and abstracts of unpublished research, 1946-1955, on the core program. The summary of research evaluating the core program includes these statements:

Assessing the effectiveness of the core program has been a part of many of the studies included in this compilation. . . . Usually the appraisal is through opinionaires or questionnaires directed to teachers, pupils, and parents. Opinions of and attitudes toward the program thus obtained are predominantly favorable. . . .

In general, investigators find that core pupils do as well [as] or slightly better than non-core pupils on standardized achievement tests. . . .

As shown by test results and follow-up studies, gains in other types of learning, such as personal-social development and social-civic attitudes and understandings, are not always so great for core students as might be expected, inasmuch as growth in these behaviors is usually established as a goal of the core program.⁷

The summary also cited the need for better evaluation techniques and more research.

We ourselves believe that there are enough favorable findings regarding the core curriculum to justify continued experimentation and research. Certainly it is not the panacea for all problems of secondary education, but it does offer a promising means of providing for some of the common needs of pupils. We believe that the major problem at present is to extend the use of the core curriculum and turn our attention now to this problem.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 6. Also see New York City Board of Education, Bureau of Educational Research, J. Wayne Wrightstone (Director), *A Third Report on the Evaluation of Pupil Growth in the Core Program in Two Academic High Schools, 1953-54*. Prepared by William Reiner. New York: The Board, March, 1955.

⁷ Grace S. Wright, "The Core Program—Abstracts of Unpublished Research, 1946-1955" (U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 485; Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, June, 1956), pp. 13-14. Mimeographed.

Putting Core Curriculum Plans to Work

The reader has probably concluded by now that we have a good deal of faith in core curriculum plans as a means of improving secondary education. Yes, we have, because we have observed, as have most students of secondary education, how unrelated some of the typical subject curriculum is to the students' real concerns, present and future, and because we have further observed that core curriculum plans seem to provide a means of relating the high school to the needs of youth without occasioning a complete reorganization or replacement of the secondary school.

The reader may have difficulty in deciding what he thinks about a core curriculum because he has had no chance to see one at work. That is a difficulty experienced by most teachers—they recognize the deficiencies of the usual secondary school program but have had no experience with any other type. What can be done under the circumstances? How can a new teacher going into a school organized on a strictly departmentalized basis do anything about core curriculum? How can a group of dissatisfied teachers put the core curriculum to work? How can a principal bring about a reorganization of the curriculum? How can secondary education utilize more fully the potential advantages of core curriculum plans? We offer now a few suggestions as answers to these questions.

SECURING FACULTY AGREEMENT ON REORGANIZATION

Probably the most ineffective step a new teacher can take would be to propose that the school go on a core basis. Even more ineffective in the long run would be an arbitrary rescheduling of the school by the principal so that the school goes on a core rather than a subject schedule. Cooperative planning is just as essential in curriculum reorganization by the faculty as it is in the core classroom. Any curriculum reorganization that is not the result of faculty thinking and agreement is doomed to suspicion, difficulty, and probable failure.

The starting point in the reorganization of the curriculum should be some advantage recognized by all or most faculty members. Perhaps there is a realization that pupils are very deficient in language skills, or that too many students who will never go to college are taking college-preparatory work, or that too many students are dropping out of school before graduation, or that too many behavior problems are evident. Faculty study of such problems almost inevitably results in consideration of the curriculum and means of its improvement. Here leadership must be ready to suggest alternatives and means of putting them into effect.

In another school there may be general complacency regarding the

curriculum. Here the dissatisfied teacher or the principal may quietly bring to light data regarding the gap between the school's program and the postschool occupations of students, or regarding the students' own criticisms of the school. Perhaps the faculty may come to serious consideration of the school's program in the light of the educational needs of adolescents.

Whatever the starting point and method of study, it is essential that any school shifting from a subject curriculum to some valid form of core reorganization have faculty agreement as to the need and purpose of the reorganization. This agreement is important even though only a few teachers are to be directly involved in the new program; otherwise there may be misunderstanding and lack of cooperation. Pupils and parents must also understand and agree in the beginning, or here, too, there will be suspicion and obstacles. The persons involved in the original planning become partners and assistants rather than critics and disbelievers, and frequently pupils and parents are more convinced of reasons for change than are teachers. In fact, pupil and parent criticisms may provide the starting point for faculty agreement.

PLANNING THE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF THE CURRICULUM

Every curriculum plan has scope and sequence, whether determined by textbook, course of study, social analysis, the needs of pupils, or some other basis. The scope of the curriculum refers to its general direction and boundaries; that is, the scope of the subject curriculum is defined by the subjects included, and that of the core curriculum by the general problems, needs, or areas to which it is to contribute. The scope and sequence of one core plan was illustrated earlier in this chapter. It should be noted that the educational needs of adolescents might constitute the scope of a core curriculum, although in some of the areas the core would need to be supplemented by many other opportunities to meet individual students' specialized needs. Sequence refers to the order of experience; that is, sequence in history is chronological, but sequence in the core curriculum is whatever order of experiences is planned. Aspects of history might be taken up chronologically or in some other order according to the needs and interests of learners. One principle being given increased recognition is that the development of adolescents should guide the determination of sequence. That is, the pressing concerns, problems, and interests of youth change as adolescents develop physically and emotionally, and their learning experiences reflect this sequence.

A first step for the faculty that has decided to experiment with some core organization is to make certain plans, however tentative, regarding the scope and sequence of the core. Early in this planning process the

faculty, or whatever part of the faculty is directly concerned, must decide how much planning is to be done jointly or individually by core teachers. A sound guide for this planning is suggested by the statement of a principle in *Education for All American Youth: a Further Look* regarding the proposed "Common Learnings" course:

Within the broad areas planned for the year, classes can begin their work in any year with the problems and purposes of which students are more keenly aware at the time. This gets the class off to an active start with zestful learning. The skillful teacher will not be worried if these beginnings deal with the relatively simple and sometimes transient affairs of everyday life. For he knows that when once the processes of interested, purposeful learning are underway, they can be guided toward the more complex and enduring needs of youth.⁸

Specifically, the core planners must answer these questions:

1. What are the general purposes of the core curriculum, that is, what needs of youth shall we seek to meet through this phase of the curriculum?
2. What particular problems or needs of youth related to these general purposes should we anticipate as centers of emphasis for each year, even though we must expect variation in their occurrence and satisfaction?
3. What principles shall we rely on for determining the order of these centers of emphasis during the year?

ARRANGING SCHEDULES AND FACILITIES

Preliminary planning has just begun when the faculty has agreed to undertake a core plan and has reached certain tentative decisions as to its scope and sequence. However, these agreements and decisions frequently will involve consideration and perhaps agreement as to matters of schedule and facilities. Suppose, for example, that the faculty of a school has decided that some departure should be made in grades 1 through 9 from the previous complete departmentalization, that emphasis in the core plan for these grades should be determined by certain educational needs of adolescents, and that the sequence for each year should depend on the planning of teachers (and they with their pupils). Here are some other questions that must be answered:

1. How will teachers be assigned to the core?
 - a. One teacher for each core group?
 - b. By a cooperating-teacher plan, as illustrated above, with each teacher assigned to a regular subject class but with an arrangement

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952), p. 225. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

of schedules so that each pair of teachers has the same two classes in consecutive periods?

- c. One coordinating teacher for each core group, with assistance from another teacher available?

2. Will core teachers handle only core classes, or elective subjects as well? The teacher's own interests and competencies should probably supply the answer. However, it must be remembered that one purpose of core organization is to limit the number of pupils for each teacher. Two core groups give the teacher only about 60 pupils to get to know and work with, whereas one core group and three subject classes mean twice as many pupils, about 120.

3. What length of time will be given core classes? One, two, three, or even more class periods?

4. What relation will the core period have to homeroom periods? counseling periods? study hall periods? use of special rooms, such as library, arts and crafts, music, auditorium?

5. What kind of furniture will be needed for core classes? Tables and chairs, of course, facilitate discussion groups and committee activities.

6. What kind of reading materials will be needed for core classes? Films and other audiovisual aids? An essential phase of core planning is anticipating needs for materials sufficiently well to develop adequate classroom, central, and audiovisual libraries as well as guides to sources of other materials.

7. How will marks be reported for the core classes? As "core" or separate subjects? Separate marks, of course, may make it somewhat more difficult for teachers to work across subject lines.

8. How will core work in grades 9-12 be reported on transcripts for college entrance? Many high schools report the core programs as separate subjects for this purpose.

9. What administrative arrangements will be necessary regarding excursions and field trips?

10. What consultative assistance can be made available to core teachers and core groups? Other teachers, the principal, supervisors, and persons in the community are frequently called upon.

11. What kinds of records and data must be kept in order to provide a basis for evaluating the core curriculum? In addition to records of individual progress, a diarylike record for the total group may be helpful.

12. How can parents be kept informed regarding the progress of the core reorganization? members of the faculty not teaching core?

Teaching in the Core Curriculum

Many prospective teachers and teachers in service are very reluctant to teach core classes. Indeed, the scarcity of teachers eager to work in this

newer program has been the greatest limitation on its use. This reluctance, indeed resistance, on the part of teachers stems in part, we think, from the general difficulty of educational change. It is frequently observed that a period of at least fifty years is required for a new educational practice to secure wide acceptance. Unless the core curriculum plan as described in this chapter makes greater headway sooner than it has during the past two or three decades, even more than fifty years may be required here.

There is an explanation other than simple inertia for teachers' reluctance to use new techniques. This explanation is nothing more than lack of know-how. Teachers whose own high school curriculum was of the single-period subject type, whose teacher training assumed they would teach in this type, and whose experience, if any, in teaching has been in the same program, are bound to feel insecure about doing something which seems radically different. How, they think, can I teach the same group of pupils two or three periods every day? How can I teach two or more subjects when I am prepared to teach only one? And how can I use techniques such as pupil-teacher planning which I have never even seen used?

So that our readers will have at least this much contact with the core curriculum plan, we have included this chapter. In this section we are particularly anxious to clarify the nature of teaching in the core curriculum. Actually good teaching in a core organization differs from good teaching in any other organization only to the extent that the longer period and the usually more flexible curriculum framework create differences. But these factors make good teaching easier; they also make poor teaching show up more clearly. The core teacher simply has more time with fewer pupils each day to use the desirable procedures presented in Chapter 15. But if he does not use this opportunity for working with individual pupils, promoting problem-solving activities, and utilizing varied learning experiences, his pupils may be twice as bored and unsuccessful in their learning as they would be in a subject class of half the length. Since these three procedures of teaching are especially appropriate in the core organization, their use in core is described more fully below.

UNDERSTANDING AND HELPING INDIVIDUAL PUPILS

Mathematically, the teacher of a three-period core class has about one third as many different pupils for three times as long as he would have in three single-period classes. Similarly, in a double-period plan he has about one half as many different pupils for twice as long. Obviously, his opportunity to know and work with his pupils is significantly better in the core organization. However, understanding and

helping individual pupils are not automatic merely because the class meets two or three periods instead of one. Such understanding and help come only as the teacher sees his pupils as individual boys and girls—not just as “a class”—and deliberately uses procedures designed to identify the unique characteristics and needs of each pupil and to help each in his learning enterprises. Some of these procedures which are especially feasible and desirable in the longer instructional period provided by the core plan are noted in the following paragraphs.

Interviews. Since the time pressure is somewhat removed by the core schedule, the alert core teacher arranges to spend some time with each pupil in an interview situation. During the first days of the year, each pupil may have a brief appointment with the teacher while the other boys and girls are busy with individual or small-group work. Since the core period is longer than the subject period, the teacher may wish to arrange supplemental interviews during the period when they are needed.

Observation. The longer period, with its varied use for total class, small-group, and individual activities, offers the core teacher an opportunity to observe the individual pupil in many relationships. The pupil's ways of working with books and materials as well as with his classmates may be carefully noted in successive situations and on different days to provide clues to his competencies and difficulties.

Pupils' work. The products—papers, notebooks, charts, maps, for example—of the pupil's work may be collected and studied, as they should be in any class. But the core teacher has two distinct advantages: first, he has a smaller number of pupils whose work he must examine; and, second, he has a longer time each day to observe work being done. It follows that the effective core teacher is especially meticulous about checking pupils' work thoroughly and frequently and calling attention to poor procedures and products. Note that the pupils in the ninth-grade core class at Oak Ridge told of preparing the following types of materials:

- Reports of interviews with resource people
- A directory of churches in Oak Ridge
- Letters arranging interviews
- Letters thanking interviewees
- Scrapbooks on the state legislature
- Autobiographies
- Diagrams of sentences
- Lists of misspelled words
- Paragraphs
- Illustrations of poems
- Poems
- Written reports on vocations

Certainly the teacher of this class had many opportunities to appraise pupil difficulties and progress.

Records. The pupil's own records, the teacher's records, and the school's records are sources to be used by any teacher in studying the needs and characteristics of individual pupils. But again the core teacher has fewer pupils and therefore a better chance of really using records. For example, every good teacher would like to keep some folder of informational materials and sample pieces of work for each pupil in his classes. Just the chore of filing such materials for 150 to 175 pupils may make this prohibitive, but the job becomes more reasonable when there are only about 60 or even 90 pupils involved. Furthermore, the prospect that the folders will be used is considerably more likely with the smaller numbers. Similarly, the pupil's own diary and the school's cumulative record may be referred to much more frequently when he is one of the smaller number of pupils whose records are of possible interest to his teachers.

Counseling with specialists. In the single-period organization it is frequently very difficult for the teacher to follow through with a pupil who has been referred to a counselor or someone else for special testing or other services (see Chapter 17). Again, the core teacher's smaller pupil load may facilitate conferring with the other teacher in such special cases. Also, in some core plans the core teacher serves as the counselor for his pupils and is thereby enabled to carry on case studies and to utilize their findings directly in his classroom relationships.

The foregoing paragraphs have noted merely the procedures especially useful to the core teacher in learning about his pupils. There are also excellent techniques to be used in helping pupils individually and directly.

Special-help conferences. All that has been said here about the opportunity of the core teacher to have pupil interviews applies to the special-help conference. Each is a private (as possible!) pupil-teacher conference, the first aiming primarily to acquaint the teacher with the pupil (and perhaps vice versa) and the second to give the pupil direct help. The special-help conference is really a tutorial situation which is rarely feasible in the single-period class. Although such conferences may need to be held after school, both the pupil and the teacher are likely to prefer the use of class time. The ingenious core teacher can find many opportunities, when pupils are working in committees or drill pairs or alone, to give the pupil who needs help a special explanation or suggestion.

Drill or practice. Especially in the language arts phases of the core organization, frequent drill in such skills as reading, spelling, writing, using materials, outlining, and preparing and giving reports may be desirable. Much drill was needed by the class in the example from Oak Ridge. In the single-period class, with its bell pressures, the frequent tendency is to leave practice in these skills to be done in the study hall or

at home without teacher supervision. In the core classroom, with its somewhat more flexible schedule, the teacher may find it easier to arrange time for such purposes as spelling drill by pairs, reading instruction in small groups organized according to reading ability, practice in handwriting, and himself hearing individual oral reports (for the pupil's practice).

Supervised, directed study. In most high school subjects, teachers usually arrange for some period of supervised study. Typically this is work by individual pupils on an assignment for the next day. The period for such study is frequently so short that the teacher has little opportunity really to "supervise" the work of pupils. In the longer core period the teacher is able to work with individual pupils and small groups in the various ways suggested above. Furthermore, the teacher is, or should be, better acquainted with these pupils than he would be in a single-period organization and can therefore give them more effective help.

Special investigations and projects. Both the longer period and the more flexible curriculum framework of the core plan facilitate work by committees and individual pupils on special investigations and projects. Although the teacher of Civics 9 may use some committee and individual projects, the pressure to "cover the course [text]" frequently tends toward almost exclusive use of the class period for discussion and/or recitation. When ninth-grade core is organized to include citizenship problems and language arts skills, the same teacher may find it wholly compatible with his instructional aims to have pupils organize committees, each on a particular citizenship problem, and to practice their language arts skills through reading varied materials and preparing many oral and written reports. Also, as already shown, the core teacher has considerably better opportunity to work with individual pupils in selecting problems and projects which are suited to their particular abilities and interests. Again we call attention to the Oak Ridge pupils' report, which cited special committee and individual projects as follows:

Listening to news commentators at home

Study of different aspects of government and community problems in Oak Ridge

Interviews of officials and citizens

The directory of churches

Preparation of scrapbooks

Varied readings

Varied writing assignments

DEVELOPING PROBLEM-SOLVING SKILLS

Effective learning comes only as learners purposefully undertake actions regarding their concerns, interests, or problems. These actions in-

involve classifying problems, selecting goals and plans, goal seeking, and the evaluation of learning outcomes. These steps of problem solving require careful guidance and extended and frequent application if they are to become characteristic of pupils' learning processes. The teacher's guidance and the opportunity for application of these steps are more easily provided in the core class than in many single-period classes. That is, problem solving as the way of learning may be fostered by the core curriculum if the core teacher utilizes the opportunities presented by the closer relationship with fewer pupils, the flexible content expectations, and the longer period of time. Specifically, the core teacher has exceptional opportunity to develop problem-solving skills through the use of group planning and through guidance in securing, evaluating, and organizing information. These phases of teaching are briefly described with reference to the core curriculum in the following paragraphs.

Group planning. Although procedures of group planning may be, and are to some extent, used in all curriculum areas, they are commonly used in the core for the selection of units of work and for planning many experiences within individual units. The teacher of a single-period class finds it more difficult to carry on group planning successfully because effective planning proceeds slowly and may not be done nearly as well on two or three different days as at one time.

Furthermore, the psychological effects of participation in planning one's own activities are more easily sought in the core curriculum because here the selection and sequence of units of work are less typically set by a course of study or a single textbook. Although we consider it good practice for the core teachers at a particular grade level to plan for some common emphases, even some common units of work, we would also expect them to develop these emphases and units in terms of the readiness and interests of their individual classes. In these classes effective teachers give their pupils many opportunities to indicate areas for study in which there are special interests, to choose between alternative units, to suggest ways and means of answering questions of concern. Participation in planning is an accepted way of work rather than an occasional departure, little understood, from usual practices of assigning lessons and tasks.

Securing, evaluating, and organizing information. The purpose of much of the goal-seeking activity of boys and girls is necessarily to extend their limited information on many questions. Although some of their information may come through listening and other processes not requiring reading skill, a great deal of it can come best through use of printed resources. In the typical subject class, teachers find too little time to give helpful direction to pupils' reading skills. Although many core teachers may know no more about teaching reading than do any other teachers, the former at least have better opportunity for it through the



Varied Resources Are Used in Effective Teaching. These seventh graders are studying a unit on transportation in social studies. (Courtesy of the Seattle, Washington, Schools.)

longer period and smaller total number of pupils. Effective core teachers either know how to, or learn how to, diagnose the simpler reading difficulties, to match pupils' reading levels and interests with their reading materials, and to explain the proper use of tools, such as table of contents and indexes, for getting information from books.

Good teaching in any curriculum area guides learners to evaluate critically the information they find recorded in printed materials, or hear or see in audiovisual resources, or get directly from people. The core teacher in particular must give much attention to evaluative skills because of the greater variety of sources of information used in typical core classes. Although some of this guidance is given in group situations through challenging pupils to justify their statements or cite their authority, much practice in evaluation of sources is helped by direct pupil-teacher conferences. This is easier in the core class.

The pupil's problem-solving activities should include some systematic organization of his information as a basis for generalizing on the fact-seeking step. Some type of complete record of the pupil's reading in connection with a unit of work may be very helpful for him in his summary and evaluation of what he has done. Frequently, notes on reading may be needed for further reference or as a basis for further investiga-

tion. Pupils need help in developing their note-taking systems, and teachers should provide suggestions and practice periods. Some special type of note taking may also be needed in connection with the preparation of reports. All of these types of records are desirable in any learning situation. The unique feature of the core class is that the core teacher, with his smaller number of pupils to teach each day, can be expected to have more time available to work with each pupil's note-taking activities and written products.

USING A VARIETY OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Perhaps our best source for citing the variety of learning experiences usable in the core class is again the Oak Ridge pupils' report of their core class. As the reader reviews this report (pages 443-449) he should note how the following learning experiences were described and consider whether these experiences could be as effective in the usual one-period English or civics class:

Studying campaign issues in newspapers and magazines

Interviewing citizens and officials of the community

Hearing speakers from the community

Visiting the Red Cross, the Welfare Department, the Town Council and Charter meetings, the County courthouse

Viewing various films

Our own opinion is that any of these learning experiences are possible in any class, but that they can be much more easily arranged within a double period. Perhaps we have belabored the point, but the plain fact is that good teaching is greatly aided by more time with fewer pupils!

Preparing to Teach in the Core Curriculum

Prospective teachers have varying reactions to the core plan: some really want to teach in the core curriculum; others are frightened by the size of the job. Perhaps study of this chapter brings the first knowledge of core curriculum to some readers. A few prospective teachers may have had experience as high school students in core classes. Some may have observed core classes in schools they visited. We ourselves believe that the best preparation one can possibly make for core teaching is to teach in a core plan. The student who is interested in the core should ask for a core class in his student teaching program or in his first school.

Because school administrators have considerable difficulty in locating core teachers, one can easily enough find places to teach in core programs. Indeed, one of us has had the discouraging experience of asking many new teachers about their interest in core curriculum, only to find that

these beginners were completely ignorant of the term. We question, of course, whether any beginning secondary teacher who is uninformed about core curriculum has had adequate preparation for teaching in the modern secondary school. However, there are desirable qualifications for core teachers other than a knowledge of the theory of core curriculum, or an interest in teaching core, or even a few months' experience with core in student teaching.

In his 1946 discussion of "Teachers for Tomorrow's High School," Caswell describes the following "competencies" needed by the core teacher:

1. The core teacher should be able to sense and help solve the problems faced by individual boys and girls.
2. The core teacher should be able to relate the more common problems and concerns of youth to the larger social setting with its values, problems and achievements.
3. The core teacher should be able to function as a group leader working with his students.
4. The core teacher should be able to relate community conditions and resources to the education of youth.
5. The core teacher should be able to draw upon and use effectively major general resources of scholarship needed to understand and deal with the more common and persistent personal-social problems and concerns of youth.
6. The core teacher should be able to guide youth in the selection of educational activities which foster continuous all-round development.
7. The core teacher should be able to guide youth in the wise selection of an occupation.⁹

We believe that these competencies are just as desirable now as when Caswell listed them. It is unlikely that the beginner will have developed all of these in the course of training as a teacher. Indeed, Caswell concludes that "the requirements for teaching the general or core phase of the curriculum are such as to necessitate a separate and distinctive program of teacher education,"¹⁰ and such separate and distinctive programs have as yet to be generally provided. However, secondary schools cannot await improvements until all teacher-education institutions offer such courses. There are specific steps one can take before and during his teaching career that will help him to become a good core teacher. In fact, the teacher will become a better one whether in the core or separate subject organization if he makes a constant effort to learn as much as possible about these aspects of teaching:

Adolescents—by observing them in school and out, and then analyzing

⁹ See Hollis L. Caswell (ed.), *The American High School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946), pp. 189-197.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 196.

carefully the school's program in the light of their characteristics and needs.

Current social problems—their backgrounds, their nature, proposals for their solutions.

Sources of information, such as reference books, textbooks, magazines, newspapers, films, community resources, radio and television—how to secure them and how to guide students in the use of these sources.

Democratic techniques of group work—by observing democratic leaders, by participating democratically in all groups of which a member, by practice as a chairman, leader, and teacher.

There is one additional and very important step to be taken by the prospective core teacher: acquiring an adequate background in whatever subject matter is included in the core. For most preservice students, this means a double major in English and social studies or a major in one and a minor in the other. We would suggest that those who are interested and can still plan for their college majors and/or teaching fields, check *now* with the certification or major adviser as to how to get adequate courses in the two fields. For the teachers in service who have not acquired adequate background in both fields, a planned program of study in the field of deficiency may be very desirable.

Implications for All Teachers

Perhaps only a portion of the secondary school teachers-in-training will ever teach in a core curriculum, unless the secondary school curriculum changes much more rapidly in the next generation than it has in the past. Nevertheless, it is our belief that all teachers should know about the core curriculum for these reasons:

1. The core curriculum is an approach to overcoming the deficiencies of the traditional curriculum, and it can be adapted to some extent in any high school as teachers are willing and able to make the effort.
2. Some of its characteristics, as summarized below, may be applied in any teaching situation regardless of the name:
 - a. Longer and more flexible instructional periods: perhaps there are ways of securing longer periods even for the separate subjects.
 - b. Guidance by the teacher: every teacher can attempt to do a good job of helping the individual student.
 - c. Emphasis on problems of youth rather than on organized subjects: even in the most traditional subjects teachers can give emphasis to practical problems rather than only to abstractions.
 - d. Use of cooperative planning procedures: pupils can help in the selection of problems or processes even in mathematics, science, and languages.
 - e. Use of varied learning experiences: the core has no monopoly on use of community leaders, field trips, and visual aids, for example.

3. The core curriculum as a theory and as a practice has probably attracted more emphasis in the literature of secondary education than has any innovation of the past generation, and all who work in the field should want to be "professionally literate."

For Further Study

Alberty, Harold. *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. Rev. ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953.

Chapters 5-8, in particular, discuss core programs.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Developing Programs for Young Adolescents*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1954.

Section II contains a number of descriptions of junior high core practices.

———. *Preparation of Core Teachers for Secondary Schools*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1955.

Defines core programs and needed competencies of teachers for these programs. Also describes current practices in the education of core teachers, and proposes further developments.

Board of Education of the City of New York. *Practices in Experimental Core Classes*. Curriculum Bulletin, 1953-54 Series, No. 8. New York: The Board, 1954.

Relates practices followed in core classes in 24 academic and vocational high schools in New York in 1954.

Burnett, Will and Bernice, eds. "Core Program in Action," *Education*, Vol. LXXIII, No. 5, January, 1953.

This special issue describes several core programs in considerable detail. The descriptions are written by personnel of the Dade County (Florida) Schools.

Capehart, Bertis E., Allen Hodges, and Robert Roth. "Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look," *School Review*, 61:406-412 (October, 1953).

Report of experimental evaluation of core curriculum in grade 10 at Oak Ridge (Tennessee).

Caswell, Hollis L., ed. *The American High School*. Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

Proposes an exemplary curriculum plan for the secondary school that includes a personal-social problems type of core program.

"A Core Program in Action." Oak Ridge, Tenn.: Oak Ridge Schools, 1953. Mimeographed.

Explanation of a core program by the pupils involved.

Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952.

The common learnings program, a core type of organization, in this hypothetical high school is described on pages 218-229 and 237-254.

Faculty of the University School, The Ohio State University. "A Description of Curricular Experiences, Grades 7-12." Columbus: The School, 1956. Mimeographed.

Includes description of the University School's core curriculum plan.

Faunce, Roland, and Nelson Bossing. *Developing the Core Curriculum*. 2d ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958.

A thorough discussion of core programs, including examples of actual programs in operation.

Gruhn, William T., and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. 2d ed. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956.

See Chapter 5 on the characteristics of core curriculum in junior high school.

Harap, Henry. *Social Living in the Curriculum*. Nashville: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952.

See Chapters 10-15 for illustrations of core curriculum classes in action, grades 7-12.

Hoppe, Arthur. *The Core in Junior High School*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University. Bloomington: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1957.

See especially Chapter 2 describing the development and status of the core in a particular junior high school.

Leonard, J. Paul. *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*. Rev. ed. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1953.

Chapter 14 describes the core curriculum.

Lurry, Lucile L., and Elsie J. Alberty. *Developing a High School Core Program*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957.

Thorough and helpful treatment of the nature of the core curriculum and procedures for developing it.

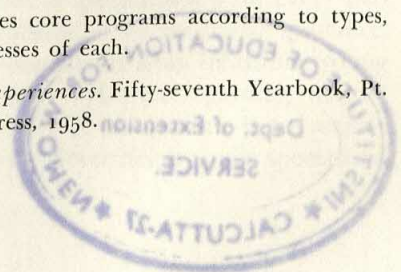
MacConnell, Charles M., Ernest Melby, C. O. Arndt, and Leslee Bishop. *New Schools for a New Culture*. Rev. ed. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953.

Describes the core program at Evanston Township High School.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Fifty-second Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

In Chapter 7, Harold Alberty classifies core programs according to types, and discusses the strength and weaknesses of each.

———. *The Integration of Educational Experiences*. Fifty-seventh Yearbook, Pt. III. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.



See especially Capehart's chapter (10) on "Illustrative Courses and Programs in Selected Secondary Schools."

Noar, Gertrude. *The Junior High School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.

Chapters 6, 9, and 10 describe the core curriculum plan as practiced in the Gillespie Junior High School in Philadelphia.

"Why . . . Basic Education in Dade County Junior High Schools?" Bulletin No. 10. Miami, Fla.: Dade County Schools, 1957. Mimeographed.

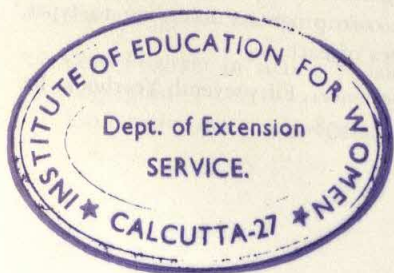
Explanation of the junior high school core program ("Basic Education") in the Dade County Schools, with suggestions to the teachers in the program.

Wright, Grace S. *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1952, No. 5. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1952.

Classifies core programs according to types, and illustrates practices in each type.

———. "The Core Program—Abstracts of Unpublished Research, 1946-55." U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 485. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, June, 1956. Mimeographed.

Helpful abstracts of many research studies on various aspects of the core curriculum.



13

The Curriculum for Specialized Education

As pointed out earlier, there is no clear, fixed dividing line between general and specialized education. In a sense, all education is specialized because all individuals are unique and therefore must acquire particular learnings at times and rates appropriate to their unique needs and capacities. However, certain learnings, such as communication skills, are needed by all young persons, and certain others, such as stenography, by only those who will use these skills in their adult life. Instruction in the common learnings, or general education, is therefore provided all pupils, whereas instruction in such a specialized field as stenography is provided only those pupils who have appropriate interests and capacities. In both general- and specialized-education courses provision must still be made for differences in individual backgrounds and abilities, although a wider variation is to be expected in the general-education ones.

We should note here also that "specialized education" is a broader term than "vocational education," since a student may seek to satisfy special needs other than that of earning an income. However, specialized education is most commonly thought of as vocational education; due attention to the latter field will be given in this chapter.

Specialized Education for Whom?

One of the most difficult problems in the entire area of specialized education is that of determining the field of specialization for every person. This, of course, is the central problem of occupational guidance. Methods of predicting occupational success are far from infallible, young persons may be expected to change their opinions regarding desired vocations, and information regarding possible occupations is frequently conflicting and inadequate in other ways. Nevertheless, some specialized

education can be offered, and, in our opinion, should be, to all youth in secondary school. In many, perhaps most, cases, the specialization done in high school has little direct relationship to the pupil's ultimate work career. On the other hand, however, one or a few introductory courses taken in high school may stimulate students to make wise choices of further opportunities.

Traditionally, the secondary school has provided specialized education for only the professions, since the characteristic emphasis in its curriculum has been on preparation for colleges and on the kind of preparation, in foreign languages and mathematics, that was traditionally considered essential in law, medicine, and the ministry. Although this emphasis has declined, it is still true that many more students take college-preparatory courses than actually go to college; also, that only a limited number of those who go to college eventually enter one of the professions. Increasingly in the twentieth century, however, secondary schools have developed terminal education programs for youth who may not be expected to continue their schooling.

In general then, we may think of specialized education as serving two groups of students: both those who will continue their schooling after high school, and those who will not continue after, if, indeed, they complete, high school. In addition, this chapter will include a discussion of the special educational provisions available in secondary schools for handicapped and gifted boys and girls.

Types of Specialized Educational Opportunities

In a sense every effort made in the school program to provide for the individual differences of pupils is in the direction of specialized educational opportunity. However, it is one thing, organizationally and functionally, to have pupils reading different materials within a general English class in accordance with their interests and abilities and another to have a special class in business English for a group of pupils specializing in business education. In the first instance there is simply good teaching of individuals within a common framework and in the latter there is a special framework for a particular group. In considering specialized education programs, then, we are describing efforts of the school to provide special opportunities for designated groups of pupils rather than efforts of individual teachers to provide special learning opportunities for particular pupils in their classes. The difference is one both of organization and purpose, since the special class in business English, for example, reflects the school's purpose of vocational training of some youth, whereas the differentiated reading in a general English class reflects the purpose of teaching all pupils to read as effectively as possible.

The specialized educational opportunities, which we identify on the basis of our definitions thus far, are as follows:

- Specialized schools
- Specialized programs of studies (or "curricula")
- Special courses
- Special activities
- Grouping
- Guidance

Each of these types of opportunities is discussed in the following section. How they are used for particular purposes and particular groups of pupils will be described later in the chapter.

SPECIALIZED SCHOOLS

One way to provide specialized education is to organize schools for specialized purposes. In Europe, secondary schools have generally been specialized, some preparing for the universities and others preparing for vocations. The early secondary schools of the United States were specialized in that they were college-preparatory schools. Following the establishment of the public high school and in the course of its popularization, broader purposes of secondary education were accepted. With the enlargement of function came the problem of how to organize schools, whether they served more than one function or only one. In general, the American answer has been to develop multipurpose high schools, but, especially in larger cities, the practice has been to provide some specialized schools, usually for vocational training. In a few cities certain secondary schools have been designated as "college-preparatory" along with others designated as "technical" or "vocational" and "general."

The dividing lines between "comprehensive," "general," "academic," "vocational," and other so-called "types" of secondary schools in the United States are really not very clear. "Vocational" high schools offer general education subjects and frequently include college-preparatory programs of study. "Academic" high schools, while emphasizing most the academic requirements for college entrance, frequently offer business education and other courses designed to give job training. "General" high schools may be primarily college-preparatory schools offering, like the academic school, a few prevocational courses as well. Any high school that is not "specialized" is sometimes considered "comprehensive." Despite these confusions of term usage, however, there appear to be two distinctly different types of high schools to be found in our metropolitan centers. On the one hand there are the schools which emphasize in program, and sometimes in name and in admis-

sion requirements, specialized purposes. Thus there are several hundred vocational high schools in the United States, and even specialized trade schools such as those of New York City. Then there are the more numerous multipurpose schools which provide complete programs of both general and specialized education, including college-preparatory and vocational education. This is the comprehensive high school as described by Keller, who has written very critically of use of the term "comprehensive" to describe a high school lacking a complete program of vocational education:

The comprehensive high school aims to serve the needs of all American youth. That is to say it accepts without selection all the young people in the area it commands—all races, creeds, nationalities, intelligences, talents, and all levels of wealth and social status. Such a school has as its broadest objective the teaching of all varieties of skill, all kinds of knowledge to all kinds of youth bent upon living socially profitable lives. To each one it seeks to give the course for which he seems best fitted. Its design is to prepare one and all for potentially successful vocations. The comprehensive high school prepares the college-oriented youth for college. It qualifies the non-college-bound youth, and as far as is possible, the boy or girl who will drop out before graduation for an occupation. It is adapted to give everyone a general education for the common things he will do in life and it may and should give some pupils of high capacity preparation for both college and occupation. In this last area it functions also as a double-purpose high school.¹

In between the specialized and comprehensive high schools, as just defined, are all the shadings of schools according to their purposes, programs, and facilities.

The issue, then, is whether specialized educational purposes are best served in schools dedicated to single or multiple purposes. In favor of the single-purpose school is the whole argument of specialization. The proponents of this plan argue that better programs of specialization can be developed more economically in a single school rather than in several schools serving several purposes. They also believe that homogeneity of the student body promotes better instruction. Those who favor the comprehensive high school argue that it is uniquely adapted to the American philosophy of equality of opportunity in a democratic institution. They feel that special schools foster class consciousness and also that specialization to the extent usually provided in the vocational high school is unwise at this level and causes neglect of general education values.²

¹ Franklin Jefferson Keller, *The Comprehensive High School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955), pp. 31-32. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

² For extended quotations on this issue from various authorities and organizations, see Keller, *op. cit.*, Chap. 12. Keller himself favored the comprehensive high school, defined as we have noted, only for the one-high-school community, and argued that every larger community should have at least one specialized vocational school.

The educational debates of recent years have raised anew the question of comprehensive versus specialized high schools. The first type received strong support from a distinguished educator, a former president of Harvard University, James B. Conant, who, as Director of the Study of the American High School (financed by the Carnegie Corporation), stated his conclusions on this issue to the National Association of Secondary School Principals on February 17, 1958:

I am convinced that a satisfactory course of study for the bright boy or girl (the academically talented) can be offered in the public high school which is of a general or comprehensive type; and I believe that, with proper organization and a good guidance system, a very large percentage of the able youth will elect a course of study which challenges their intellectual capacity, provides precise formulation of ideas, and develops habits of hard work. I am further convinced that the students in the comprehensive school derive certain advantages from their school year which are denied to their contemporaries in special schools. . . .

I have just spoken of my conviction about what can be accomplished by the American public high school in regard to the development of the academic talents of certain kinds of boys and girls. I have equally strong convictions as to what can be accomplished in the comprehensive high school for all *types* of youth. Indeed, I might say what *must* be accomplished, if our democratic society is to remain cohesive.³

We ourselves are in general inclined to accept the ideal of the comprehensive high school as the best means of providing specialized education for most youth in our secondary schools. We would hope that in small communities the expense of vocational facilities would not cause neglect of this program. We would also hope that in large metropolitan centers, the fine programs of vocational education now available in single schools would not be sacrificed by decentralization. We also recognize the desirability of special provisions for handicapped children and the near impossibility of providing these in all high schools and thus the practical necessity of some centralization of such opportunities.

SPECIALIZED PROGRAMS OF STUDIES

Larger high schools have a sufficiently wide offering of elective subjects to permit their being grouped into alternative programs of study or "curricula." Recently these are being developed into "multiple tracks" (see pages 507-510). For example, college-preparatory, general, and commercial programs of study are widely available. In schools having extensive vocational departments, that is, in comprehensive high

³James B. Conant, "The Public High School and the National Interest," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 237), 42:346 (April, 1958).

schools, there may be several different vocational programs such as auto mechanics, machines, carpentry, and electricity. For example, certificates in the following vocational fields are offered by one of the schools cited by Keller as outstanding in his study of comprehensive high schools:

Airplane and Engine Mechanics	Music—Band
Auto Mechanics	Music—Orchestra
Body and Fender Repair	Music—Vocal
Bookkeeping	Painting and Decorating
Cabinetmaking	Patternmaking
Carpentry	Plumbing
Commercial Art	Printing
Commercial Cooking	Radio
Commercial Sewing	Refrigeration
Drafting—Architectural	Retail Selling
Drafting—Machine	Secretarial Training
Electricity	Sheet Metal
Electronics	Sign Painting
Foundry Practice	Welding and Forging ⁴

Most general high schools, of course, do not offer such extensive vocational programs.

Typically, about one half of the units required for high school graduation are specified for all students and are in the fields of English, social studies, science, mathematics, and physical education. Pupils electing a program other than the "general," which may consist wholly of electives beyond the specified units, take most or all of their other units in the area of special interest. If the college-preparatory program is followed, then the electives are chosen in additional academic subjects, especially languages, mathematics, and science. If the commercial program is followed, the electives are taken in commercial subjects and there may be special areas in this field, such as secretarial training, bookkeeping, and retail selling. Similarly, larger high schools may offer sufficiently extensive electives in art, music, and homemaking to permit specialization here as well as in the industrial and commercial fields. In schools serving rural areas, concentration in agriculture may be possible.

Smaller high schools generally cannot afford to offer multiple programs of studies. However, all but the very smallest have some type of elective offerings permitting a degree of specialization. Through alternation of courses, combination of small classes, and arrangements for correspondence courses, many small schools make very strenuous efforts

⁴ Keller, *op. cit.*, p. 285. This school is the Arsenal Technical High School of Indianapolis.



Art Courses May Offer Specialization for Some Pupils. According to the school magazine from which this photograph was reproduced, "the theme of the art department might well be that talent is everywhere waiting to be discovered, developed, and appreciated." (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

to meet the special needs of their pupils. Although their offerings are a far cry from those of our great metropolitan schools, these small schools do offer a tremendous potential in the intimacy of pupil-teacher contacts. The familylike relationship in the small school can facilitate a faculty concentration on the problems of individual pupils rarely if ever possible in the large school.

SPECIAL COURSES

The elective system of classes in American high schools is itself a plan for providing specialized education. It was observed in Chapter

10 that probably every subject added to the elective list represents a judgment of some faculty member or group that some pupils need the subject. Thus, creative writing is added for the benefit of students with a flair for writing, and remedial reading for those who do not have a flair for reading. However, the usual process of adding elective subjects and of changing required ones to elective, and vice versa, is such that one can hardly consider every elective subject as a real provision for specialized education. Electives may be added to fill out a teacher's schedule, a required course may be made an elective to ease requirements, or a course such as consumer education, which is really designed to meet common needs, may start as an elective.

It would be a mistake to argue that pupils always choose elective subjects on the basis of really specialized needs. Although we would hope this is usually the case, it is commonly realized that electives are also chosen because of their reputation as being "easy" or "fun," or because of teachers' popularities, or because of some other reason equally unrelated to pupils' special needs.

Even with these problems in the provision and choice of electives, a large number of courses are offered by American high schools to fit the special needs of individual pupils. Our reference here is to the course that could never be justified for all pupils and yet could never be justified unless some group of pupils needed what it had to offer. For example, even excluding the courses typically required in or offered because of specialized college-preparatory and vocational programs, note the following elective courses available in the senior high schools of one large school system:

SAMPLE LIST OF ELECTIVE COURSES

Language arts

- Basic English
- Mythology
- Creative writing
- Debate I, II, III
- Journalism I, II, III
- Dramatics I, II, III

Social studies

- Psychology (1 sem.)
- Human relations
- Latin American history (1 sem.)
- Preparental education (1 sem.)
- Effective living (1 sem.)

Mathematics

- Business mathematics
- Senior basic mathematics
- Senior mathematics

Consumer mathematics

Mathematics in life

Science

Effective living

Physics (practical)

Chemistry (practical)

Related shop science

Music

History and appreciation

Theory

Chorus I, II, III, IV

Beginning string, brass, woodwind, percussion

Orchestra I, II, III, IV

Band I, II, III, IV

Instrumental ensembles

Arts and crafts

Art studio I, II, III, IV

Arts and crafts workshop I, II, III, IV

Posters and display

Pre-aviation

Industrial arts

Industrial arts I, II, III, IV

Homemaking

Homemaking II, III, IV

Business education

Economics (consumer) (1 sem.)

General business training

Business law (1 or 2 sem.)

Personal typing (1 sem.)

Agriculture

Agriculture I, II, III, IV

*Military science and tactics I, II, III*⁵

In the vocational schools of this system, programs are also offered for preparation in the following jobs:

Aircraft trades

Aircraft engines

Aircraft mechanics

Aircraft instruments

Building trades

Building construction

Cabinet and millwork

Metal trades

Machine shop

Ornamental iron

Sheet metal

Motor trades

Automotive mechanics

Diesel engines

⁵Dade County Public Schools, "A Guide to Curriculum Planning in the Dade County Public Schools" (Curriculum Bulletin No. 1, revised; Miami, Fla.: The Schools, March, 1955), pp. 18-20. Mimeographed.

Electrical trades	Radio trades
Electrical construction	Radio communications
Electric motor winding	Radio broadcast technician
Graphic arts	Radio service
Commercial art	Apparel manufacture and design
Signs and display	Commercial cooking and baking
Printing	Refrigeration and air conditioning
Dental assistants' courses	Watch repair
Dental technicians' courses	Dry cleaning
Drafting	Tailoring
Photography	

Despite the limitations of the elective system and the differences among schools as to the elective offering, this system is a basic effort of our democratic educational program to meet the needs of all who attend the American high school. We ourselves consider it as perhaps the greatest single accomplishment, unique among national educational programs, of democratic secondary education. Any institution that has been able to invent so much for the good of American youth will undoubtedly in time correct what inconsistencies, inadequacies, or inequalities exist.

SPECIALIZED ACTIVITIES

Like the elective system, the activity program in American high schools represents a major effort to meet the special needs of pupils. Most, probably all, activities find their way into the school curriculum because of pupil and/or faculty opinion that they are needed by some group of pupils. Unfortunately, activities sometimes remain in the program long after pupils cease to recognize a need for them, and sometimes community or faculty interest in a particular activity exceeds that of pupils. Also, scheduling and other practices sometimes make impossible the participation of pupils in the very activities they need. Nevertheless, the activity program is a unique and in many ways highly successful means of specialization in the secondary school program. Since the activity program is fully described in Chapter 16, we mean merely to identify it here as a major provision for special needs.

GROUPING OF PUPILS

Chapter 10 discussed the issue of grouping pupils for instructional purposes. Many laymen and educators regard various types of grouping as the preferred ways of providing for the special needs of individual

pupils. Others feel that the advantages are outweighed by the disadvantages. In actual practice there is considerable use of grouping for specialized education, and here we simply wish to identify these practices as aspects of the curriculum for specialized education.

Each of the provisions for specialized education already discussed in this section results in a sort of homogeneous grouping. That is, pupils in specialized schools are somewhat homogeneous with respect to whatever factor, usually vocational interest, is the basis of the school's organization. Similarly, pupils electing a particular program of studies are homogeneous with respect to their interest in this program and its purpose. Likewise, those who choose or are directed to a particular elective class or activity presumably have a like interest or need. There is also the classification more usually called "ability grouping": the deliberate assignment of pupils to alternate sections of a class on the basis of ability and related factors. For example, ability grouping is widely employed in English and sometimes in other subjects. Partially to avoid the labeling problem, the alternate sections are sometimes given different names and pupils may elect (or be guided into) "College-Preparatory English 10," "General English 10," or "Basic English 10."

Chapter 10 also noted that another type of grouping, subgrouping within the same class, is effectively used by many teachers to provide special opportunities for learners. Thus, in the English class, interest groups for reading different types of literature may be organized. One group may consist of pupils having similar difficulties in basic reading skills; the teacher provides special instruction here. Another group may be one of advanced readers who are encouraged by the teacher to explore the library for challenging sources they can read individually and share with each other and perhaps with the total class.

Special groupings of handicapped and gifted youth are sometimes essential in making full provisions for their special needs. These provisions are described later in this chapter.

GUIDANCE OF PUPILS

Perhaps the most significant provision the secondary school makes for specialized education is the guidance which determines special needs and so far as possible refers pupils to appropriate opportunities for meeting these needs. Without adequate guidance services, all of the specialized educational opportunities described here may miss the mark. For specialized education to succeed there must be some link between the pupils who need specialized opportunities and the opportunities themselves. This link in the modern high school is the guidance of a capable counselor or teacher.

Specialization for the College-Bound

The problem of college preparation is a very complex and somewhat confused one for the high school teacher and, indeed, for the high school pupil. Any adequate treatment of this problem must explore certain issues on which practice and opinion are divided. We propose here to examine three pertinent questions and offer our own conclusions as to future directions in this field. For convenience, we are considering as college-bound students those who will continue formal schooling of any type after graduation from grade 12.

WHO SHOULD GO TO COLLEGE?

Some Americans believe that most American youth should go to college, and others believe that this opportunity belongs to only a relatively small group of the most capable youth. In between these extremes, there is a great variety of opinion on this basic question. Regardless of these differences of opinion, however, one thing is certain—more and more American youth *are going* to college. In view of the steadily increasing proportion of college-age students in attendance in colleges and universities, as shown in Chapter 2, many educators believe that we are now witnessing a movement toward universal higher education similar to that which occurred in secondary education during the first half of the twentieth century.

Youth are going to college for many reasons, among them

- to increase income expectations;
- to prepare for a particular vocation;
- to acquire social prestige;
- to have a good time;
- to do what their parents and friends expect;
- to be better educated;
- to find a husband or a wife;
- to develop further some avocational interest; and so on.

Much as these reasons may vary in their soundness, all of them exist. They are so compelling as to make us believe that without some major reversal of our social and economic system, most American youth will aspire to college.

The issue becomes, then, either a wholly academic one, since most will probably try to go to college regardless of whether they should, or a more practical one of "Who cannot go to college?" Believing as we do that secondary education may eventually have to assume that all youth who can go to college will go, our concern is really with the rea-

sons why some youth are not college-bound. The basic reasons seem to be one or more of these: lack of interest, lack of funds, or lack of ability. Scholarships, loans, student help, public junior colleges, and other possibilities are steadily decreasing the number of youth who are deterred from college by financial reasons. Lack of interest may be a self-selective factor that should keep youth from college, assuming that the secondary school has provided adequate opportunity for pupils to appraise their own interests in further education. The extent to which lack of ability should keep youth from college depends on the philosophy of higher education and here is where the issue of "Who should go to college?" becomes significant.

This issue cannot be dealt with in absolute terms. "College" must be defined. As we see it, there are really three types of post-high school education. In the first place, there is the trend toward extension of secondary education to include grades 13 and 14. If one agrees with the 1947 report of the President's Commission on Higher Education that "the time has come to make education through the fourteenth grade available in the same way that high school education is now available,"⁶ and the more recent movement in this direction, then one must accept the principle that all youth within the range of normal intelligence should attend these schools. The only preparation indicated is the completion of grade 12.

Second, there is the general or liberal arts college. Liberal arts colleges vary from very flexible to very rigid admission requirements, for the American philosophy of education encourages each faculty to set its own purposes and prerequisites of instruction. Thus, we believe that those whom these colleges will admit should attend them. If the college conceives of its job as advancing the intellectual training of individuals known to have high intellectual abilities, then its admission policies should guarantee such a student body. If, on the other hand, the college wishes to take high school graduates where they are and add to their previous experiences other appropriate and sequential ones, it should have open admission. One objective of guidance in the high school is to identify the colleges and their requirements and help pupils select the right college and prepare accordingly.

The third type of post-high school program is the vocational one. It may be offered in the community institute, in a vocational school re-

⁶ President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, December, 1947), p. 37. Note that a decade later, following rapid expansion of post-high school enrollments and in anticipation of much greater expansion, the President's Committee on Education beyond the High School took a somewhat more conservative view. See the committee's *Second Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, July, 1957).

quiring high school graduation, or in a special (professional) school, such as engineering, of a university. Here the need for careful selection is obvious. Assuming, as we believe one should, that the engineering field, for example, requires certain aptitudes and previous training, then only those youth who possess these aptitudes and have completed or will complete the prerequisite training should go to engineering school. Similarly, specialized selection and preparation programs have to be anticipated by the high school for its pupils interested in technical training.

WHAT SPECIALIZED EDUCATION IS NEEDED BY THE COLLEGE-BOUND?

The foregoing analysis of post-high school education offers clear implications as to the nature of specialization needed in high school as preparation for the post-high school period. These implications, stated simply and as we see them, are as follows:

1. *Satisfactory completion of a program of general education through grade 12 should be the essential preparation for the public community or junior college.* One major purpose of the community college is to permit more general education through grade 12 by postponing specialized education to grades 13 and 14. Some preparatory work in a specialized field may be very desirable before completion of grade 12 by the prospective community college student, but it does not seem appropriate for this student to neglect his general education program in order to begin occupational training, for example, in the high school years.

2. *Satisfactory completion of whatever prerequisites the particular liberal arts college sets as necessary preparation for the college.* If the principle is accepted that each liberal arts college may have its own purposes and admission requirements, it follows that its potential students must plan their high school programs to meet these requirements. Although this logical conclusion certainly does not present a simple problem to the high school, it does place responsibility on the student for his own preparation.

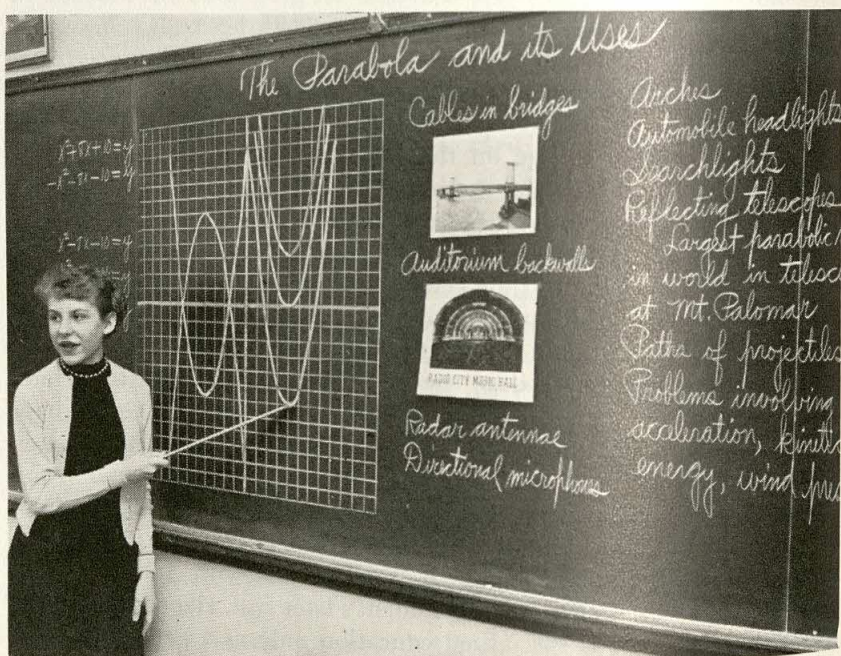
3. *Satisfactory preparatory courses for the particular technical field should be completed by each student planning for a vocational college program.* Preparatory courses for such technical programs as engineering, medicine, and agriculture are much more uniformly agreed upon than admission requirements of liberal arts colleges. By and large, the high school youth seeking to prepare for entrance into a recognized program of technical education can identify fairly readily the prerequisite courses, typically in science and mathematics, and fulfill these before high school graduation.

As already suggested, these conclusions are perfectly logical but they do not answer the question adequately either for the high school or for the college-bound pupil. In the first place, the typical adolescent does not know as he enters high school just which of these three types of post-high school programs he may enter. If there are no grades 13 and 14, and in the great majority of communities there are not, his alternatives may be liberal arts and vocational programs, but these allow a great range of possible specialization. And if he knows he wants liberal arts but is uncertain as to what college, there is equal uncertainty as to the specific requirements to be anticipated. It is no wonder that high school advisers frequently recommend meeting the requirements of the most rigorous college on the assumption that satisfactory completion of these will satisfy any other college.

In the second place, in part because of the advice just mentioned, there is considerably less variation in the programs of study taken by college-bound youth than in the actual requirements of the colleges and universities. In view of his uncertainty as to what college he may attend, the high school student and his parents want to be certain that he meets the requirements of any college; hence he follows the traditional program in English, languages, history, mathematics, and science. Perhaps to be certain that his program is acceptable in liberal arts he gets too much English, language, and history, and too little mathematics and science to satisfy the technical program eventually chosen. Or perhaps he makes the mistake the other way. The point is that the typical program of the college-bound is a fairly standard one, although deviations may be taken and sometimes to the student's later cost. Hence the college-preparatory program is specialized education only as a general pattern of the five most frequently required college admission subjects (English, languages, history, mathematics, and science) and frequently there is really needed more specialization, especially in mathematics and science, than the pattern admits. Furthermore, if the student takes the maximum amount of work possible in these five areas, other valuable general education courses may be missed.

In the third place, the situation is further confused by considerable discrepancies between research and practice as well as by disagreement among educators as to what constitutes a desirable pattern of college-preparatory subjects. As we noted in our earlier analysis (Chapter 10) of this issue, the practice has been toward a maximum program of studies in the so-called "academic" areas. The difficulties experienced by some college students probably stem from combinations of poor ability, poor teaching, and poor work habits (which result from one or both of the other factors) rather than from failure to complete the traditional subjects.

In the fourth place, there has been special concern about the inadequate background or lack of interest of college students in science and mathematics. Some high schools and colleges have been increasing graduation requirements in these subjects. There is probably great need to evaluate more critically the general-education provisions in science and mathematics and also to determine what specialized science and



Advanced Mathematics Courses Are Available in the Comprehensive High School. Advanced courses may offer excellent preparation for specialization in college fields requiring extensive mathematical backgrounds. (Courtesy of the Lincoln, Nebraska, Senior High School.)

mathematics are needed in high school for pretechnical education. Meanwhile there is to be questioned any tendency to meet both general- and specialized education needs by requiring all high school students, irrespective of their ability and future plans, to take more of the same college-preparatory courses.

In this last connection of special interest are recommendations resulting from three years of study by a Commission on Mathematics presented by a distinguished mathematics educator, Howard F. Fehr, to the National Association of Secondary School Principals in February, 1958. This report recommended three major phases of mathematics in the secondary school as follows:

1. A seventh- and eighth-grade program to consist of "an extension of arithmetic, of a large segment of intuitive geometry, and of an introduction to the ideas of geometry" to be taken by all students in high school and "until they have a command of use of it on an adult level, that is sufficient for everyday use throughout their life."

2. A three-year sequence called "elementary and intermediate mathematics" to be taken by all students preparing to enter college, and to consist of first-year algebra about as usually organized, a year of geometry quite different from the usual course in plane geometry, and a year of intermediate mathematics including the essential materials in the usual second-year algebra course plus additional materials.

3. A fourth-year program in elementary function and probability "for those college-bound students who are interested in the subject, or desire to pursue science, engineering, or technology."⁷

Thus this proposal definitely distinguishes between the mathematics required for those who are and are not interested in college preparation.

SOME ESSENTIALS FOR THE COLLEGE-BOUND

In view of the confusing situation regarding college preparation that we have just described, some guide lines are needed by high school teachers. We suggest the following:

1. High school students should be helped to decide on their college plans, especially as to the type of college, as early as possible, and whenever appropriate directed to the admission requirements of the particular college.
2. The college-bound student should be guided into a program of studies matching as closely as possible the minimum requirements of the college or type of college in which he is interested.
3. When no choice of a college can be made, the student should be guided into the most common pattern of college-preparatory programs and into a good distribution of elective subjects rather than being allowed to pile up units in one field.
4. Throughout the high school curriculum major emphasis should be placed on effective learning processes and on speaking, reading, and writing skills.
5. In classes definitely intended for the college-bound, such as the senior year English course, particular attention should be directed to such college-required skills as writing longer research papers.

⁷ Howard F. Fehr, "High-School Mathematics for the Second Half of the 20th Century," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 237), 42:318-324 (April, 1958).

6. The high school record should maintain adequate information concerning the achievement of pupils in all their courses, work habits, extraclass activities, standing on standardized tests, career interests, and personal history for use in guiding them and in informing college admission officers.

Terminal Specialized Education

Despite the great increases in recent years in the proportion of youth continuing their formal education after high school, the high school may be expected to be the terminal institution for another large proportion of youth for the foreseeable future. These are the boys and girls who terminate their schooling either before high school graduation or immediately thereafter. Most of these seek and find employment of some sort, although the high school must also recognize a preparatory function for the young housewife. This section is concerned with the problems of providing specialized education for all these terminal students, and with some means of improving existing practices.

PROBLEMS OF TERMINAL EDUCATION

The problem of helping students to prepare for the occupations they may enter after high school is complicated by many limitations and confusions. In the first place, the majority of high schools are probably too small, too poor, and too limited in facilities to provide adequate specialization.

Thus, large numbers of students attend schools that cannot afford expensive facilities for vocational education. Vocational or technical high schools are generally found only in metropolitan areas. In these cities specific vocational training in trades is given in the usually well-equipped schools. Federally aided programs in agriculture, home economics, trades and industries, and distributive occupations have done much to expand vocational offerings, but these programs are still not available in many small schools that cannot meet the requirements for this aid. However, vocational courses without federal support are offered in many of these smaller schools.

Furthermore, much of the vocational education that is offered is so narrow and so highly specialized that it is of value to relatively small groups of high school students. The programs of vocational or technical high schools generally give adequate training for the trades but frequently a limited offering in general education. The Prosser Resolution, adopted in 1945 at a conference sponsored by the United States Office of Education, pointed out that the vocational program provided special-

ization for about 20 per cent of high school students, as did the college-preparatory program for another 20 per cent, and that the remaining 60 per cent received no adequate "life-adjustment" training. This resolution subsequently became a basis for extended study and planning, under the leadership of a national Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, for those neglected students. Good education for the group (now somewhat less than 60 per cent, we believe) of students in high school who receive specialized preparation for neither college nor vocations, is actually general education, but a general education that is functional for this particular group. Specialized education for this group of high school youth is perhaps an adaptation of the general-education program, an adaptation that probably should include some exploration of various special interests, with the help of guidance and work experience.

Finally, there is the difficulty of providing both general and specialized education in an already crowded program. The high school has traditionally been an academic institution, and academic courses fill the curriculum. Vocational courses have been opposed by many groups, and in many communities their offering has been confined to the vocational or trade schools in which general education has been sacrificed for technical training. Even in the comprehensive high schools, students electing vocational programs may not have enough time or opportunity for general courses. Similarly, students enrolled in the college-preparatory program have little or no opportunity to take nonacademic courses. The problem is further complicated by the large percentage (approximately 40 per cent) of students who leave school prior to graduation and for whom both general and specialized education must be provided in even less than the usual period of secondary education.

IMPROVEMENT OF TERMINAL EDUCATION

As partial, possible solutions to these problems of terminal specialized education, we propose five general principles:

1. *Specific occupational training should be deferred for each youth until he has had as much general education as he can profit from at that time.* This principle cannot be made to indicate a particular grade level of optimum value for job training of all youth. For a small proportion, job training perhaps needs to be started before grade 10, and for others not until graduate school. Since each pupil cannot have a completely tailor-made program, we see a range of occupational training available in the senior high school and junior college years. For the communities which cannot have any occupational training in school, some type of school-sponsored work experience as described in the following chapter

seems best. In the cities wherein occupational training facilities are located in senior high school plants, some arrangement whereby mature youth still in junior high school or out-of-school youth can avail themselves of these facilities may be desirable. The essential provision is a functional program of general education that keeps youth interested and learning as long as possible.

2. *The general education program should utilize every opportunity to reveal the variety of occupations available to the young worker.* In every subject of the curriculum emphasis can be placed on work and workers with the intent of developing interest in occupations and preparation for them. For example, the English teacher can point out the interesting occupations of literary characters, and have speeches and themes written about occupational topics. The social studies teacher can emphasize the improvement and expansion of opportunities for work that have paralleled our history. The mathematics teacher can show the essential uses of his subject in many occupations. The science teacher has a particularly fine opportunity to relate scientific developments with a great variety of jobs in modern America. The modern language teacher can compare the occupations of other countries with our own as well as call attention to the utilitarian function of languages in present economic life. And so in every subject there are opportunities for interesting pupils in the occupations from which they may ultimately select one for which to prepare.

3. *Extended programs of secondary education should be provided wherever possible.* The possibilities of specialized education in the community institute are explained in the following answers from *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look* to the question "Why do students attend the community college?" (in hypothetical "American City"):

1. Some students want to prepare for various technical and semi-professional occupations which require all the training that high schools can give and one or two years in addition. In this group, for example, are those who wish to become accountants, draftsmen, laboratory technicians, dietitians, assistants in doctors' and dentists' offices, and managers of various businesses.

2. Some want advanced training beyond that which can be offered in the years of high school in the occupations for which high schools provide the basic preparation. Machine shop, metal trades, retail selling, office management, automobile and airplane mechanics, and the various building trades are examples. In one or two years at the community college, a student is able to extend his mastery of basic operations, enlarge his knowledge of related science and mathematics, secure more practical work experience, and advance in his understanding of industry, labor, and economic processes.

3. Some want to prepare for admission to professional schools and the last two years of technical and liberal arts colleges. For various reasons, they prefer to take the first two years of college or university work while living at home. For

them, the community college provides courses comparable to those of the first two years of the four-year colleges.

4. Some want to round out their general education before entering employment or becoming homemakers. To them, the community college offers a wide range of elective courses in science, social studies, literature, languages, psychology, home economics, music, dramatics, art, and handicrafts.

5. There is yet a fifth group, composed of adults and older youth, mostly employed, who no longer attend school full time, but who wish to continue their education during their free hours. Their interests are wide and varied. Some spring from their daily work, some from their home life, some from their civic activities, some from their uses of leisure time, and some from the simple desire to "keep on growing." Some enroll in the regular community college courses. Most attend evening classes which are organized especially for them. These classes may meet anywhere in the city, but they are all a part of the community college program, for this is the school system's agency of adult education.⁸

The number of such community colleges or institutes in the United States is steadily growing and we are confident that the movement will take a firm hold in the era of expanding post-high school education.

4. *The secondary school should have a definite program of occupational guidance.* The purpose of occupational guidance is to help each pupil identify an occupation in which he is interested, and, further, to help him plan for related experiences in and out of school that will be preparatory.

5. *Work experience in the community should be widely utilized to provide practical experience in an area of specialization and to give the student an opportunity to explore various work possibilities.* Much of the next chapter is devoted to the program of work experience in secondary schools.

Vocational Emphases in the Program of Studies

Certain curriculum areas available in most secondary schools have values both in general education and in the vocational aspects of specialized education. Those usually considered in this connection are agriculture, business education, home economics, and industrial arts and trades education. In addition, most subjects have possibilities in prevocational choice making and experience.

AGRICULTURE

Courses in agriculture have contributions to make to the general education of all students in supplying their needs for an understanding

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952), pp. 235-236. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

of science, for information regarding costs and marketing, and for development of leisure-time interests in gardening. However, limited facilities in urban centers, competition of other perhaps more valuable courses, and tradition make it unlikely that agriculture will become a general education subject. The vocational aim for boys dominates and obviously justifies offering the courses in rural schools. Study and experience under skilled instructors offer rural boys an opportunity not only to improve in some skills that most will have used long before high school but to secure many varied skills and much broader ideas of the possibilities in agriculture.

The importance of a community-centered program in agriculture is indicated by the fact that most of the young persons who enter farming after high school remain in the area of the high school they attend. Probably the greatest concern with respect to agricultural instruction is its frequent absence in rural areas. The most recent statistics for the entire United States show only 6.7 per cent of all secondary school students enrolled in agriculture. This, however, is an increase from 3.6 per cent in 1933-1934 (Table 32, page 324).

Early instruction in agriculture perhaps had too narrow a vocational emphasis, that is, was too much concerned with specific skills for increasing farm earnings. In recent years more attention has been given to the economic problems of the farmer: conservation, marketing, farm organization, consumer problems on the farm, and the management of farm labor. More emphasis has also been given the means of making farm life more attractive: electrification, sanitation and health, and the farm home.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

The most widely offered of the specialized subjects other than home economics are the various courses commonly grouped under the title "commercial" or "business" education. Courses and enrollments in this field have multiplied greatly in the twentieth century. Here, too, some federal aid is available for certain courses in distributive occupations (trade, transportation, and communication) by the George-Deen Act of 1936 and subsequent appropriations.

The most widely offered business courses aiming toward development of specific skills are bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand. Depending on the size, facilities, and aims of the school, one-, two-, or three-year sequences may be offered in these courses. In addition, the larger schools offer skills courses in office practice or management, retailing (distributive education), and clerical training. Related special courses are also frequently offered in business English and business

arithmetic. Typing may be offered for personal use as well as for secretarial training. Where the vocational aim is emphasized, arrangements are frequently made for "cooperative plans" in which pupils in training get practice in offices and stores. Evening courses and other types of continuation courses are also offered to upgrade those on the job.

The vocational courses in business education are typically concerned with specific skills of typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping. Attention has been increasingly given to more adequate means of selecting students for these courses and to more intensive training methods. Although at first a dumping ground for the slow-learning pupil, the commercial department in many schools is becoming more and more concerned with the output of competent clerks, stenographers, and bookkeepers. At the same time the absence of alternative specialized training in some smaller schools causes many pupils to elect these courses regardless of interest or proficiency in them.

In view of the fact that about one of every five persons employed in the United States is engaged in one of the occupations for which business education offers training, it seems important that the high school provide an adequate program. Such a program would be appropriate in all communities where clerical and sales jobs are available (that is, all communities except the distinctly agricultural) and would reflect in its emphasis the kinds of business occupations available. Through various occupational guidance techniques, effort would be made to identify students who are likely to go into such occupations. Girls who lack essential linguistic abilities or boys who lack social maturity would be discouraged from going into training for stenography or salesmanship, respectively, unless and until these basic abilities are developed.

HOME ECONOMICS

Courses in home economics also bear various other titles, such as home arts, household arts, and homemaking, and are offered in most secondary schools. In view of the fact that homemaking is the most usual occupation of women, the offering seems not yet common enough. Although home economics has received considerable impetus from federal aid, this subject is so important that its availability should not be, and generally is not, dependent on federal reimbursement. Federal aid for homemaking was authorized by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and subsequent acts of Congress appropriating funds for vocational education. However, a great deal of the instruction in this field really serves general education purposes.

Offerings vary, in accordance with the size and the facilities of the

school, from one course to complete lists of courses, grades 7 to 12 or 7 to 14. The courses are more often required in the junior high school grades (usually grades 7 and 8) and are elective in the senior high. Even smaller schools usually offer at least two units. In the basic courses other emphases that may become courses themselves in larger schools include child care; selection, furnishing, and care of the house; nutrition; family relations; health and nursing; and consumer buying. In larger schools where enrollments and pupil needs seem to justify this amount of specialization, courses may be organized in such occupations as cafeteria management, domestic service, and tailoring.

Because of its practical nature and its direct relation to the adult activities of women, this field is regarded by many educators as having contributed more than perhaps any other to the needs of high school girls. Here girls learn better techniques for jobs at home, gather suggestions for their mothers, and acquire information they may need in their own marriage and motherhood. Potentially, homemaking instruction can affect home and family living directly, because projects may involve home beautification or improved diets or better budgets.

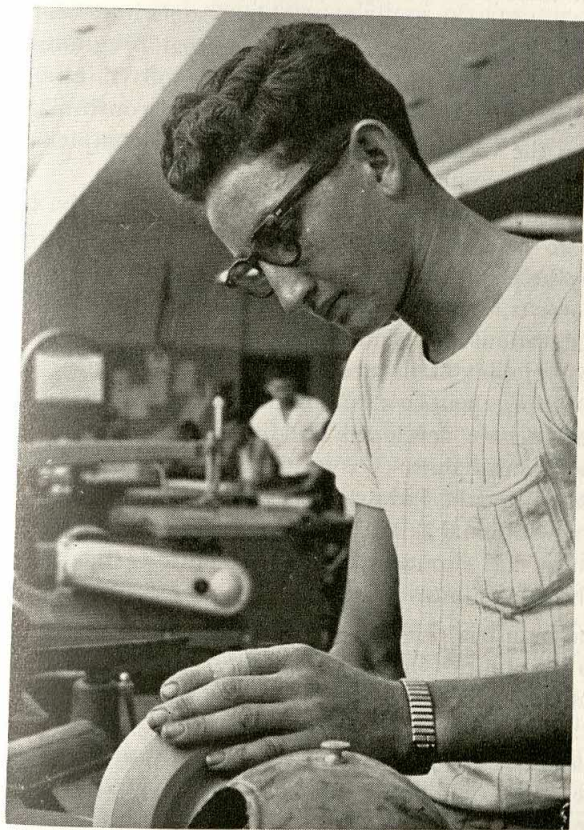
Preparation for specific occupations other than that of the housewife and mother may also be given in home economics courses. Sewing is of value to the future seamstress as well as to the future mother, and cooking to the girl who becomes a restaurant cook as well as to the housewife. Practice in serving meals is of value to the girl who becomes a waitress just as is practice in interior decoration or dietetics or cosmetology or nursing to those who go on to the advanced training necessary for careers in these fields. Lack of school facilities in the more specialized fields can be remedied by cooperative arrangements with local establishments. Actually, every home, every women's shop, every food establishment, every beauty parlor, every school provides abundant opportunity for girls to secure information and skills that they may use in both their present and future activities.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

Two goals exist with respect to the industrial arts field. On the one hand, it is believed that the function of the secondary school is to give all students some acquaintance with the industrial occupations and a few elementary skills and knowledges in industrial arts. On the other hand, it is held that the secondary school should give such specific training that its graduates will be able to step into industrial jobs without further training. The first goal is met in the "industrial arts" courses, the second in "industrial trades" ones.

A large number of schools offer no courses in industrial arts, al-

though courses in home economics, if offered, may include home repairs, and in agriculture, also if offered, may include farm repairs. Other schools offer exploratory industrial arts courses for one or two years and no further courses—these exploratory courses being most often in



Both Skill and Safety Are Stressed in the Shop Program. Today's comprehensive high school is fully equipped to teach essential skills for many trades as well as for practising "do-it-yourself." (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

a general shop situation. Still other schools, usually our urban high schools, offer the exploratory courses in junior high school and also specialized vocational courses in specific trades in the later years. The shops usually provided in these schools include machines, wood, metals, electricity, printing, automotive, drafting, and building. Certain schools found in our largest cities—trade or vocational schools—are definitely

vocational in aim and offer, sometimes in separate schools, training in electricity, printing, carpentry, plumbing, and so forth. This is a terminal program of specialized education.

Schools of the latter two types share in federal funds for vocational education. In these schools a prescribed sequence of courses is taken for each trade, with related academic subjects sometimes also prescribed. In addition to the regular day-school vocational programs, vocational courses include apprenticeship training, on-the-job training in connection with industry, and evening school or other continuation courses. In larger cities the vocational program may be so complex that it constitutes almost a separate school system.

The exploratory, general shop courses undoubtedly have a real contribution to make to the general education of all young persons and also may help individual students choose areas of specialized education. If, however, the secondary school is to assume responsibility for vocational education, there must be opportunity through specialized courses for developing skills needed in industry. Industrial employers increasingly supply their own training for specific jobs but still expect the employee to have developed skill in fundamental tools and processes and good work habits.

Whether or not the industrial arts program contributes to the development of vocational skills has to be answered in terms of a particular community and secondary school. The visitor at a particular school might ask these questions:

1. Is the industrial arts program based on accurate information regarding job possibilities in the community? That is, is the specialized training that is given appropriate to the occupations young persons will enter? The appropriateness of the training is determined usually by occupational surveys, sometimes made or assisted by high school students and their teachers. Conduct of these surveys is relatively simple in the small community, but, of course, extremely difficult in the large city. In fact, in the small community students may make such surveys almost unaided; in the large one they may consult, and sometimes assist, governmental or commercial agencies.

2. Are the skills that are taught carefully planned with local industry, so that a maximum number of them are essential in all or most trades and industries, and so that specific training within industry may build on the school's programs? Job analyses commonly prepared by representatives of industry and of schools are desirable. Such analyses provide an excellent opportunity for joint planning of the industrial education program by schools and employers.

3. Is training for a particular trade consistent with the local requirements of that trade? Planning with representatives of a single trade

is relatively simple; it is the ordinary procedure followed in vocational programs.

4. Does the program include adequate information that will help students understand in connection with their occupation such problems as how to get a job, functions of employees' organizations, relations between management and employees, relations of government, and conditions of employment and advancement? Such understandings as these are essential to the worker and should be stressed both in the general study of industrial occupations and in the specific vocational courses. Again, leadership from government and industry may be helpful.

OTHER SUBJECTS

As we have stated repeatedly, virtually all subjects can have possibilities for both general and specialized education. The only distinction we have tried to make is whether the subject is primarily concerned with general skills and understandings needed by all young persons, or with special skills needed by a few because of their plans for the future. We have just described and analyzed four subjects or groups of subjects that are largely vocational in purpose. We may now examine briefly certain other subjects that may also serve vocational purposes in particularly significant ways.

Art. Although art may be taught in secondary schools as though the fundamental purpose were to train artists, it is doubtful whether the secondary school should afford such specialization. Art in the secondary school should serve three general purposes: (1) develop appreciations of the beauty in art; (2) develop interest in creative art and art study as leisure-time activities; (3) discover students with unique art ability and give them as much training as possible. This third purpose is a matter of specialized education and ordinarily will affect only a small number of pupils in even the largest high school. Unfortunately, art instruction is rarely available in schools other than those of considerable size. Where it does exist, the teacher may constantly search for students with special abilities in drawing, painting, designing, modeling, or other art activities, and give them as much assistance as possible in developing these abilities for vocational purposes.

Music. In music also the high school must first be concerned with the development of appreciations and leisure-time interests by as many students as possible. Thereafter courses may be introduced to give those with special performance abilities opportunity to develop these abilities in instrumental groups and vocal organizations. Music teachers, too, may encourage youngsters interested in careers as musicians to carry their training forward as rapidly as is possible and desirable.

English. Again, English may, but should not, be taught as though its purpose were to develop essayists and journalists of all students. At the same time, young persons with special interest and abilities in writing should have assistance in discovering and developing their abilities. Opportunities to do creative writing for the school paper, for radio scripts, for dramatics, or just for enjoyment should result in the identification of students who merit and need special help and encouragement.

Mathematics. Mathematics offers definite vocational values. Arithmetic, and perhaps for some even algebra and geometry, is essential in all skilled trades. Most of the mathematical skills needed here can usually be taught in the general mathematics courses, grades 7, 8, and 9, and in the trade courses. Students going into engineering, architecture, physical science, statistics, finance, and bookkeeping, of course, require advanced mathematics and should be provided as many of these courses as can be offered by the school or made available through correspondence, independent study, or tutoring.

Science. Chemistry and physics have certain vocational values as well as contributions to make in general education. Usually one or both of these courses are required for entrance into colleges of agriculture, home economics, engineering, medicine, and other fields. Furthermore, knowledges in one or more of these fields may be important to various occupations (or related leisure activities) not requiring college training, such as mechanics, photography, radio, homemaking, cleaning and dyeing, farming, and crafts. With today's great need for scientists in almost every field, the prevocational values of the sciences can scarcely be over-emphasized.

Educational Opportunities for the Handicapped

Provisions for the handicapped pupil have been relatively scant in American secondary schools. Even in school systems with well-defined programs of special education at the elementary school level, little or no opportunity has been provided in secondary schools. In recent years, however, increasing attention has been given to handicapped youth and a growing number of communities offer special facilities and programs. Some of the possibilities are described below with reference to physical handicaps, mental deficiencies, and social maladjustments.

PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

Enrollment of physically handicapped pupils in special (public) schools and classes at the secondary school level were reported as follows

for the most recent year for which national data are available, 1952-1953:⁹

Speech-defective	52,568
Crippled	1,889
Hard of hearing	2,252
Partially seeing	1,470
Special health problems	1,289
Deaf	489
Blind	181

These numbers are, of course, far below the actual number of physically handicapped children of secondary school age, some of whom are in regular schools and classes, others in special institutions, and others in neither schools nor institutions. It is significant, however, that this 1952-1953 survey reported as a present trend that "in most fields the rate of increase of special-class enrollments in secondary schools has far outdistanced that in the elementary schools."¹⁰ The analysis of enrollments by types of provisions led to the further conclusion that "the enrollment increases indicated for speech-defective, mentally retarded, and special health problem children in the secondary schools might best be described as phenomenal."¹¹ Most of this enrollment was in the junior high school.

In the following brief descriptions of the programs provided physically handicapped pupils, they are classified as in the data just reported.

Speech-defective. Boys and girls with speech defects are given special instruction by a qualified speech correctionist in secondary schools having such a service. In school systems speech correctionists frequently work on an itinerant basis, working in each school periodically with a small group of pupils needing speech correction. Where facilities and personnel permit, the speech correctionist may have a room permanently assigned and equipped to which some pupils will come for help perhaps once a week, others one period each day, and in which some pupils, with the most severe defects, will spend nearly all their day. If the school is large enough and there are enough cases, one special room may be used for the severe cases and another for the minor ones.

Crippled. Severely crippled pupils, especially the cerebral-palsied, in secondary schools are usually cared for in special rooms but are given as much opportunity as possible to participate in all-school activities.

⁹ U.S. Office of Education, "Statistics of Special Education for Exceptional Children, 1952-53," Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-54* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954), p. 19.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. iii.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

In many school systems these pupils are in special schools, although in many other communities no educational provision is made for them.

Hard-of-hearing. Many boys and girls who have suffered hearing losses learn to use hearing aids and perhaps lip reading at an early age and are able to follow the regular class program of the secondary schools. Others may have lacked early adjustment or suffer a hearing loss while in the secondary school and need special instruction. The special program such children have includes lip reading, use of amplified sound, and use of a hearing aid. They are included in regular classes and school activities as much as their adjustment permits.

Partially seeing. The best practices in the education of the partially seeing are similar to those regarding the speech defective and the hard-of-hearing. The partially seeing pupils do all their close eye work in a specially equipped classroom. A portion of each day is spent in a regular classroom, in the auditorium, in the cafeteria, and in other school activities with normally sighted children.

Special health problems. The enrollment of 1,289 pupils in special programs for "special health problems" includes so-called "delicate" pupils suffering from epilepsy, heart trouble, tuberculosis, glandular disorders, or other debilitating conditions. Many such children are in hospitals or home-bound classes and others are in regular classes. Those who do not have contagious diseases and can be in school but are not able to be in regular classes may be segregated for their physical therapy and for some or all instruction.

Deaf and/or blind. Small numbers of deaf and/or blind children are enrolled in special education programs in secondary schools. Most, of course, are educated in special day or residential schools, but increasing numbers of deaf and/or blind children become sufficiently proficient in lip reading or Braille, as the case may be, to attend regular secondary schools and classes.

MENTALLY RETARDED

The national survey previously cited reported 28,687 pupils enrolled in special schools and classes for the mentally retarded.¹² This also was a marked increase over previous surveys and reflects the efforts being made in larger centers throughout the United States to provide educational opportunities for all pupils. Pupils with an intelligence quotient of less than about 75 to 80 (that is, their mental age is less than 75 to 80 per cent of their chronological age) are generally classified as mentally retarded. We are not referring here to the slow-learning pupils

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 13.

(I.Q. of about 75 or 80 to about 90) who are simply normal children a little under the average intellectually, and whose number is very great. If the intelligence quotient of the retarded is lower than some minimum (frequently 50) set by state or local school regulation, the pupil may be classified as "severely retarded." The latter are rarely enrolled in secondary schools, only 147 such pupils being reported in the data cited above,¹³ and some authorities question the desirability of secondary school classes for pupils with an intelligent quotient below 65 or 70.

Although programs for mentally retarded vary, best practices make much use of concrete learning aids and prevocational experiences. The pupils participate in such regular classes and school activities as they can with some success. Most of the school day is generally spent in a small class in some type of core curriculum organization emphasizing pupils' own experiences and the community environment. Basic skills of communication and practices of citizenship are major goals.

SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED

Boys and girls who are misfits socially and emotionally in the regular school program constitute major unsolved problems in most schools. Those whose behavior becomes markedly delinquent sooner or later drop out of school, if not previously expelled or apprehended by police and courts, or are placed in institutions for delinquents. Some public school systems provide, frequently in conjunction with the juvenile court and other legal agencies, residential or custodial schools for these extreme cases. These special schools offer regular instruction paralleling to some extent that of the other schools in the system. Prevocational work is generally emphasized. There are also private schools serving the socially maladjusted.

One program for these youth is that of the so-called "600" and "700" schools (the schools are numbered in the 600's or 700's) of New York City. The "600" schools were organized there in May, 1944, to care for the most difficult problem children above the third to the ninth grades. In 1958 a new outbreak of delinquent behavior in certain New York City schools led to the establishment of three additional such schools temporarily designated as "700" ones. A review of all these schools by the New York State Education Department in 1958 was reported in *The New York Times* as commending some of their achievements but noting "an almost unreasonable dependence upon the schools to effect cures although they cannot deal with the causes of delinquency." The *Times* report also quoted the review as follows: "until our society is ready to attack the problem on a broad front, the school will be hard

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

pressed even to control the symptoms, much less eradicate the fundamental causes." ¹⁴ We consider this statement an excellent commentary on the entire problem of educational provisions for the socially maladjusted, delinquent youth.

Most of us believe that the school's first responsibility in this area is the prevention or at least early diagnosis and treatment of delinquent behavior. Prevention is possible most usually in regard to helping young children overcome or adjust to the physical and mental handicaps already described, which frequently produce social maladjustment as well. More difficult problems are presented by children who have no physical or mental handicaps but exhibit predelinquent tendencies usually arising from circumstances beyond the school's control. Unfortunately, the problems may be so aggravated by the time of adolescence that the secondary school can sometimes do little but try to keep the pupil in school until the age of compulsory attendance is attained. The best provision that secondary schools can make for these youth is an adequate guidance system, the details of which will be considered in Chapter 16. We should note here the importance of adequate psychological and psychiatric counseling services, contacts with the home and community agencies, and, above all, sympathetic and understanding teachers.

Education of the Gifted

In recent years great concern has been expressed by laymen and educators alike with regard to improving the educational opportunities for youth variously referred to as "gifted," "talented," or "superior." Although some writers have considered gifted children as including all those with any unusual talent, greatest emphasis has been placed on the intellectually gifted. The growing demand of our civilization for trained specialists and our persistent need for able leadership in all endeavors make inevitable a continuing concern for the potential specialists and leaders. And it cannot be denied that many gifted youth have lacked adequate educational challenge or opportunity or both.

An indication of the type of administrative provision made for both rapid and slow learners and rapid learners only is given in Table 38, based on a questionnaire study by the United States Office of Education of a sample of secondary schools. The data are based on usable replies from 795 schools. Several of these provisions and certain others are described in this section.

¹⁴ Loren B. Pope, "Education in Review," *The New York Times*, August 10, 1958, p. E9. According to advice received by one of us from the New York City Board of Education's Bureau of Curriculum Research in September, 1958, the "700" schools would be permanently classified as "600" schools. See "Annual Report, '600 Schools,' 1957-58," New York City Board of Education, Office of Lillian L. Rashkis, Supervisor of "600" Schools. Mimeographed.

TABLE 38

Administrative Provisions for Rapid (and Slow) Learners

PROVISIONS	PER CENT OF SCHOOLS USING
<i>A. For Rapid Learners</i>	
College-preparatory curriculum	78
Pupils permitted to carry above-normal class load for graduation credit	57
Elective classes in advanced or specialized subjects	48
Remedial sections for able pupils whose performance is below capacity	37
Teachers assigned on basis of training and experience with rapid learners	36
Pupils sectioned in classes which do 2 years' work in 1; or 3 years' work in 2, etc.	4
<i>B. For Both Rapid and Slow Learners</i>	
Teachers furnished guidance information pertinent to pupils	90
Teachers assigned on basis of traits and interests suitable for work	82
Regular classes furnished advanced study materials and additional learning aids	79
Space, furniture, and equipment for flexible grouping in classes and activities	62
Ability (homogeneous) classes	48
Individualized instruction outside regular class hours	47
Job placement services	46
Supervised work experience	45
Summer school sessions provided	44
Credit given for demonstrated achievement regardless of time spent in class	43
Transfer to special school encouraged	38
Flexible graduation requirements as to credits	38

Source: Arno Jewett, J. Dan Hull, and others, *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1954, No. 5; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954), pp. 8-9.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES

The national survey of special education for 1952-1953 reported an enrollment of 19,233 youth in special schools and classes for the mentally gifted. Of this number, however, 19,084 were enrolled in New York City,¹⁵ which has been unique among American cities in the number and

¹⁵ "Statistics of Special Education for Exceptional Children," *loc. cit.*, Tables 3 and 6.

types of special high schools. The arguments for and against special high schools for the gifted were summarized as follows by a writer in one of the New York City Schools publications:

Arguments in Favor of Special Schools for the Talented and the Bright

1. Our present neighborhood high schools are now receiving a greater number of nonacademic youngsters who need a special "watered-down" curriculum. This program of general education does not provide a challenge to our bright youngster. The methods and materials now used must conform to the needs of the many who, in former years, never reached the high school level.
2. The "honor class" technique has failed in many of our neighborhood high schools, either for administrative reasons or for lack of candidates for such classes.
3. The lack of adequate budget and of building facilities for our secondary schools makes impossible the program which a good all-inclusive neighborhood high school needs. Meanwhile, we are losing the potential that exists in our bright youngsters who attend the average neighborhood high school.
4. Our bright youngsters develop best in an atmosphere that is challenging. Our special schools, dealing with a homogeneous group of college-bound youngsters, can plan accordingly.
5. Many of our bright youngsters need to associate with their intellectual and emotional peers—especially during the critical adolescent years. With the exception of a few neighborhood high schools such as Midwood and Forest Hills, this opportunity is not available, especially in areas like Manhattan, most of The Bronx, and many sections of Brooklyn.

Arguments against Special Schools for the Talented and the Bright

1. The needs of our bright are, and can be, met in our neighborhood schools—especially if these schools are not impoverished by allowing the bright youngsters in the neighborhood to go to special schools outside of their neighborhood.
2. There is a great deal of correlation between "brightness" and social and economic security. Many children, intellectually deprived rather than intellectually slow, would thrive in neighborhood schools where they would meet and be challenged by talented and bright youngsters. Also, if these bright youngsters were placed in neighborhood schools, they and their parents would do much to help make the neighborhood high schools even better than they are because they would then be concerned with the conditions in such schools.
3. Most of the special schools grew up in accidental fashion. The High School of Science now attracts all children who can pass its entrance examination, not only those with special interest or talent in science. The same is true for most of the other special schools. Shall we set up special schools for other special talents—creative writing, social studies, etc.? Shall we set up schools for all those who have an I.Q. above 130? 120? 110? Where will this separation lead us in our secondary school programs?
4. Our special high schools are so over-powered by the number of talented and bright youngsters they attract that they lack the facilities to develop these talents.

except those of the very gifted. Many youngsters attending these schools for the talented and the bright are frustrated and disheartened because of the unwholesome competition that exists for marks, scholastic standing, and special attention. The situation exists regardless of the stated intention of the administration. The very nature of the student body and the limitations within the school make this competition for marks, awards, and recognition inevitable.¹⁶

The number of pupils enrolled in special classes designated for the gifted has probably increased greatly in recent years as a result of the growing interest in improving the education of these young people. In any event, the number would certainly be far greater than that reported if classes operated on an ability basis (that is, the fast-learning sections) and if all the specialized courses (see below) appealing primarily to the gifted were included. In most schools it has not been, and probably it should not become, the practice to label classes as being "for the gifted." On the other hand, it is to be hoped that specialized opportunities of the types described below should be abundantly available in whatever form seems best suited to the pupil population, facilities, and staff of the individual school.

ACCELERATION

Despite considerable disagreement among educators as to the wisdom of accelerating the high school program for the gifted, several types of acceleration are to be found. In some schools pupils are allowed to take an extra subject to shorten the period spent in high school, although most frequently extra classes are recommended for a broader program. The practice of allowing an able pupil to miss a class frequently in order to participate in some other activity amounts to acceleration. Another practice is to allow those who can do so to complete a course in less than the usual year and spend the remainder of the class time in some other school experience.

Chapter 10 noted the experimentation under way, with support of The Fund for the Advancement of Education, with two types of arrangements for shortening the four-year period usually spent in grades 11-14. Under one plan, students take in high school some advanced courses equivalent to some taught in the first year or two of college and enter college with advanced standing. Under the other, students are admitted to college who have not completed high school but who seem ready,

¹⁶ Simon Beagle, "Specialized Schools Versus Neighborhood Schools," *Strengthening Democracy*, 9:4-5 (November-December, 1956). Published by the Board of Education of the City of New York. The author states his own conclusions as opposing special schools. This position was challenged in articles replying to the one cited, in *Strengthening Democracy* for March-April and May, 1957.

both academically and in personal maturity, to undertake college work. The first plan, that known as "advanced standing," in particular has had a favorable response, and wide use of it may develop.

Acceleration has undoubted limitations for young people who are not socially and emotionally mature enough to live their school lives with older youth. Undoubtedly for the most gifted, a highly enriched program of instruction would be preferable. For those who are mature and do not have such a program available to them, acceleration may be the best answer.

SPECIALIZED COURSES

Advanced, elective courses in the schools that can afford to offer them seem a ready and desirable way to care for talented youth. Some large high schools are organizing seminar classes in certain fields, such as English, social studies, and science, in which able students may carry on somewhat independent studies under challenging teacher leadership. An example of such classes was described by *Time* in 1957 as follows:

With the help of Reed College, Portland has started one of the nation's most ambitious programs for bright high-school students. One mathematics seminar took up everything from calculus to topology (a division of geometry dealing with the properties of figures unchanged by deformations not involving tearing or joining). A history seminar finished the regular senior high-school work on "American Problems" during the first third of the year, spent the remaining months studying the development of law, delving into Hammurabi's code of laws and discussions of such work as Mill's *On Liberty* and Vernon Parrington's *Main Currents in American Thought*. While regular English classes reviewed grammar and read abridged editions of Homer, superior students examined various translations of the full text, supplemented their readings by writing college-level papers.¹⁷

Such course titles as the following sample in four fields indicate the possibilities of advanced electives for the able and interested pupils:

English: Creative writing, radio speaking and broadcasting, free reading, current literature

Social studies: Advanced United States history, English history, history of the Orient, current history, international relations, ethics, comparative religion

Science: Meteorology, mineralogy, aeronautics, aviation physics, aviation mathematics, radio physics, bacteriology, metallurgy

Mathematics: College algebra, analytics, calculus, navigation, surveying

¹⁷ "The Perishable Resource," *Time*, 69:79-80 (January 14, 1957).

HONORS CLUBS AND ACTIVITIES

In addition to societies in special fields (for example, Thespians, dramatic arts) two organizations sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals are regarded in many schools as significant opportunities for recognition of pupils' general scholastic achievement. The National Honor Society, organized in 1921, has member chapters in many high schools throughout the United States. Eligibility for membership is based on scholarship, leadership, character, and service. Only juniors and seniors in the upper third of their classes scholastically may qualify for consideration. The National Junior Honor Society, organized in 1929, has similar purposes and eligibility requirements (citizenship is added) but has not grown as rapidly as the first organization. Several other student organizations with national sponsorship (Table 42, page 608) also appeal to students with special abilities and interests.

In addition, many high schools have their own local organizations which have high scholastic or other standards designed to make membership an honor and a privilege. Various school activities also have eligibility standards which are sometimes sufficiently rigorous to provide an incentive to the talented youth to participate. In fact, the activity program operated on a voluntary basis is itself one device for providing enrichment and challenge to the gifted student to broaden his interests or pursue them further as well as to serve as a leader.

THE "MULTIPLE-TRACK" IDEA

Many efforts toward more adequate provision for the gifted have recently been labeled "multiple track." Actually, this idea is simply a refinement of earlier attempts, which we have several times identified, in the form of alternate programs of studies or "curricula" and even of the elective system itself. The plan is to guide students, in accordance with their abilities and probable future destinations, into one series or "track" of high school courses. The plan may include alternate courses in the same subject field, such as those being developed by committees of the American Mathematical Association, the College Entrance Examination Board, and other professional groups, and, especially, local curriculum committees. The plan also includes more courses in certain fields for one track, and perhaps no courses in certain fields for one or more tracks. Thus the track for academically talented pupils includes no vocational courses, and that for vocational students no foreign languages.

A popular presentation of James B. Conant's proposal for a multiple-

track program was published by *Life* on April 14, 1958. This proposal was for three general levels of courses, described as follows in the *Life* article: "A stiff academic curriculum for the upper college-bound 20%, an elementary level for the bottom 20% and a diversified vocational program for the rest."¹⁸ This proposal suggested considerable flexibility of movement from one track to another, ability grouping of classes, and a superior guidance system. One of us wrote the former Harvard president, serving in 1958 as Director of the Study of the American High School, for clarification of his recommendations. He answered by letter of September 22, 1958, that he did not believe in a "tracking system" but rather in "an individualized program, tailored for him [the student] upon consultation with his counselor." Specifically, he offered the following recommendations as to the specialized program and guidance of academically talented youth:

Turning now to the elective programs of the academically talented, I define this group as the top 15-20 per cent of the student body on the basis of academic aptitude. A policy in regard to the elective programs of these students should be adopted by the school to serve as a guide to the counselors, for, in their own interest as well as that of the nation, these able boys and girls should take the kind of program that will help prepare them for business, political, and professional vocations. For these students, I recommend the following programs, depending upon the scientific or linguistic bent of the student:

- A. Four years of mathematics, three years of science, four years of one foreign language, in addition to the required four years of English and three years of social studies. This means a total of eighteen courses with 15-20 hours of homework a week during the four years.
- B. Three years of mathematics, two years of science, four years of one foreign language, three years of a second foreign language, together with the required English and social studies. This makes a total of nineteen courses with 15-20 hours of homework a week during the four years.

The sequence of mathematics courses for these able students should be so designated that those in each successive course should have demonstrated the ability needed to handle such a course. Admission to eleventh-grade mathematics is contingent upon at least a "C" in tenth-grade mathematics. Admission to the physics course is contingent upon at least a "C" in three years of mathematics. In foreign languages, a "C" should be required for entry into the next year's course.

I should stress that while the distribution of academic talent on a national basis is 15-20 per cent, this percentage will obviously vary from school to school and from year to year in particular schools. In any case, this figure is flexible, and, while I do think that the students within the group should take a tough academic program, there may be an additional percentage in particular schools who will also elect strong academic programs. This additional percentage will depend, in large measure, on the nature of the community.

¹⁸ "Tryouts for Good Ideas," *Life*, 44:120 (April 14, 1958).

There is, of course, the problem of identifying the able students, and this problem goes right back to the counselor, who bases his advice on all the evidence he can muster. The importance of aptitude testing in the seventh and eighth grade cannot be overestimated, for these tests can reveal talent that is otherwise hidden. In this connection, you are probably well aware of my academic inventory, a device I urge school boards to ask their high school principals to employ every year to find out what courses, in fact, the academically talented students had elected during their high school career.¹⁹

Our own interpretation of the multiple-track idea for larger high schools is shown in the following details:

TABLE 39
Possible Multiple Tracks, Grades 9-12

CURRICULUM AREAS	NO. 1-HOUR PERIODS, GRADES 9-12		
	ACADEMIC	VOCATIONAL	EXPLORATORY
Personal Development			
Physical education	400	400	400
Music	100	100	100
Art, arts & crafts, etc.	100	100	100
Special-interest activity (e.g., radio, photography, typing)	200	200	200
English	800	800	800
Social education			
Classes in social studies	600	600	600
Clubs, student government, and/or supervised community activities	200	200	200
Science	600	400	400
Mathematics	600	400	400
Foreign languages	600	—	400
Vocational training (including work experience)	—	1,600	400
Additional special interest	600	—	800
Total	4,800	4,800	4,800

¹⁹ See Conant's report, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), for more details of these recommendations. Appendix D of the report summarizes the academic inventories of 22 comprehensive high schools. Appendix E reports a state-wide inventory in Maryland of 1,245 academically talented students. The latter report notes that "individual schools vary enormously in the degree to which they are able to guide their academically talented students into tough courses" (p. 119), and also comments on the relatively low enrollment of girls in science and mathematics, and on the general failure of students to take more than two years of a foreign language.

This plan assumes that the school year includes 1,200 instructional periods probably arranged as at present in 200 days, each of six periods. The additional special-interest provisions might include in the *academic* track additional science, mathematics, language, and/or social studies; in the *exploratory*, additional personal development activities, social studies, language, and/or supervised study periods.

This proposal is based on our idea that some high school pupils with definite academic talents should take a highly academic program; that others with a definite vocational interest who expect to terminate their formal education with grade 12 or earlier should receive vocational training; and that others whose abilities, interests, and plans are uncertain should follow an exploratory program until their possibilities have been better identified. We assume that a counselor would help each ninth-grader select courses that would fit into one track or the other, and that in each subsequent year further study of the pupil's record and interests would help determine whether the original track seems right and should be followed or if a change should be made. We suspect that grouping by tracks in the common subjects would be desirable only in English; the subjects themselves for each track might well be differentiated to some extent in science, mathematics, foreign languages, and vocational areas so that some grouping by tracks would appear. Thus, general science might be the ninth-grade subject in the vocational and exploratory tracks, and biology the tenth-grade subject, with general science omitted in the academic track and biology and chemistry being the ninth- and tenth-grade subjects, respectively. As we see it, students might well be grouped heterogeneously without respect to their guidance track in the personal development and social education courses and activities. Indeed, we see no reason for the "tracks" to be identified in the program of studies or other materials given pupils nor for the latter to be identified as to tracks by anyone other than the counselors. Thus the multiple-track plan would really be an expedient for the use of guidance counselors and for teachers in their curriculum planning.

For Further Study

"Advanced Placement Programs in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 242), 42:1-171 (December, 1958).

The entire issue is devoted to descriptions of these programs and to syllabuses of college-level courses offered in various high schools.

Beagle, Simon. "Specialized Schools Versus Neighborhood Schools," *Strengthening Democracy*, 9:4-5 (November-December, 1956).

Cites, in this New York City Board of Education periodical, arguments for each type of school for talented pupils and concludes that the neighborhood school is preferable.

Blond, Leo. "More on Specialized Vs. Neighborhood Schools," *Strengthening Democracy*, 9:45 (May, 1957).

A vigorous dissent to Beagle's article (see above) favoring neighborhood over specialized schools for the gifted.

Conant, James B. *The American High School Today*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959.

The widely awaited report by the former Harvard president supports the comprehensive high school, and recommends the elimination of the small high school as a "top priority."

——, chairman. *The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Student in the American Secondary School*. The Conference Report, February, 1958. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1958.

Offers many suggestions as to differentiation for the academically talented, as does the 1959 Conant report (above).

Cruickshank, William M., and G. Orville Johnson, eds. *Education of Exceptional Children and Youth*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958.

Comprehensive work with chapters on many types of exceptionality, written by specialists in the fields concerned.

Cutts, Norma E., and Nicholas Moseley. *Teaching the Bright and Gifted*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957.

Contains many suggestions, as well as case histories, for identifying and guiding the bright and gifted children. Includes a noteworthy chapter (9) entitled "Motivating the Underachievers."

DeHaan, Robert F., and Robert J. Havighurst. *Educating Gifted Children*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957.

Describes several methods of providing for gifted students. Includes very helpful examples of programs and case studies.

Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952.

The descriptions of secondary education in mythical Farmville and American City include accounts of opportunities for specialized education.

Fehr, Howard F. "High-School Mathematics for the Second Half of the 20th Century," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 237), 42:318-324 (April, 1958).

Includes recommendations for students interested in mathematics for specialized preparatory programs.

The Fund for the Advancement of Education. *They Went to College Early*. Evaluation Report No. 2. New York: The Fund, 1957.

Reports on the experimentation sponsored by The Fund, with early admission to college of talented students.

Jewett, Arno, and J. Dan Hull, and others. *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1954, No. 5. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954.

Survey of adaptations for rapid and slow learners in grades 7-12 in schools enrolling more than 300 pupils.

Keller, Franklin Jefferson. *The Comprehensive High School*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955.

Based on personal visits to many schools, this book argues for specialized high schools in large cities, comprehensive (multipurpose) schools in the one-high-school community.

———. *The Double-Purpose High School*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953.

Includes survey of high schools—schedules, requirements, credits—and describes some sample double-purpose schools.

McWilliams, Earl M., and Kenneth E. Brown. *The Superior Pupil in Junior High School Mathematics*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1955, No. 4. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955.

Reports varied methods used for identifying and providing for the superior pupil in junior high school mathematics.

Martens, Elise H. *Curriculum Adjustments for the Mentally Retarded*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1950, No. 2. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953.

Describes practices in curriculum planning for the mentally retarded. Section 11 deals with experiences in high schools.

Molin, Jack. "Specialized Vs. Neighborhood Schools: A Reply," *Strengthening Democracy*, 9:4-5 (March-April, 1957).

Another reply, supporting specialized schools, to the article by Beagle (see above).

National Society for the Study of Education. *Adapting the Secondary School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Fifty-second Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

See Chapter 8 by Gilchrist and Forbes, "Designing Programs to Meet the Special Needs of Youth."

———. *Education for the Gifted*. Fifty-seventh Yearbook, Pt. II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Comprehensive yearbook treatment of the characteristics of gifted individuals, and of educational provisions for them. See especially Chapter 12 on programs for the gifted in secondary schools.

———. *The Education of Exceptional Children*. Forty-ninth Yearbook, Pt. II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950.

Includes chapters on education of each major class of exceptional children.

"The Perishable Resource," *Time*, 69:79-80 (January 14, 1957).

Time's review of provisions for talented pupils in various high schools.

Pope, Loren B. "Education in Review," *The New York Times*, August 10, 1958, p. E9.

Describes the "600" and "700" schools in New York City, and reviews the New York State Education Department recommendations about these schools for delinquent youth.

President's Commission on Higher Education. *Higher Education for American Democracy: Establishing the Goals*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947, Vol. I.

The first of the six-volume reports of the commission appointed by President Truman in 1946 to study higher education.

The President's Committee on Education beyond the High School. *Second Report to the President*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, July, 1957.

Gives the committee's recommendations regarding the expansion and financing of educational opportunities beyond the high school.

"Tryouts for Good Ideas," *Life*, 44:117-125 (April 14, 1958).

Includes a chart citing James B. Conant's proposals as to a three-track system of secondary education.

United States Office of Education. "Statistics of Special Education for Exceptional Children, 1952-53." Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education, 1952-54*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954.

The last of the periodic reports (the previous one was for 1947-1948) of enrollments and other data.

Venable, Tom C. *Patterns in Secondary School Curriculum*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958.

See Chapter 19 for a summary statement of trends regarding the program of studies in vocational education.

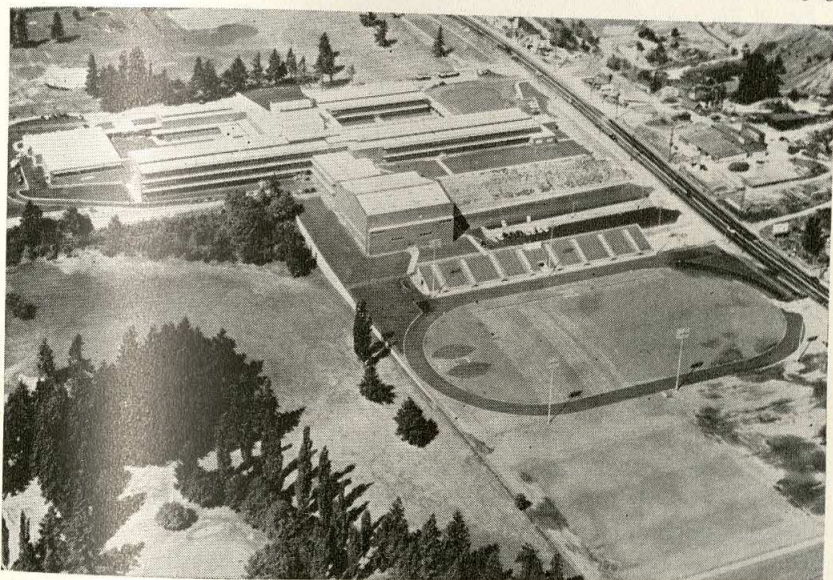
14

Relating the Community and the Curriculum

Part Two analyzed in some detail certain basic factors in secondary education. In America the local community—its people, their ways of living and working, and their aspirations for youth—is an important factor determining the program of secondary education. Earlier chapters also showed that the school's program was likewise significant in determining how people would live and work and aspire in the community in the future. Since these relationships find their most direct expression in the school curriculum, certain interrelationships of the community and the curriculum will next be discussed: school-community curriculum planning, curriculum experiences in the community, and youth's work experience in the community. The community's interest in the curriculum will be briefly reviewed and a concluding section will note the relationship of the often-used term "community school" to our conception of secondary education.

The Community's Stake in the School

At least three very practical considerations comprise the major stake that the people of every community have in their secondary school(s). First of all, they are making a financial investment in the schools. In very wealthy communities whose schools are heavily supported by local tax funds, the total investment per pupil in secondary education may amount to several hundred dollars, perhaps as much as \$1,000, annually. Even in communities whose schools are supported primarily out of state-collected and -distributed funds, the taxpayers are still paying the bill. Added to tax payments, whether to the state or to the local unit or to both, are



The Community Has a Major Investment in Its High School. The modern, comprehensive high school covers a large campus and occupies several buildings or wings devoted to specialized phases of the total program. (Courtesy of the James Madison High School, Portland, Oregon.)

the expenditures of individual parents for the school expenses of their children. Hence there is a definite stake of a material sort in the schools. This investment may be collected in part by community use of school facilities (see page 523) and other services (see page 532).

In addition, the secondary school has a great deal to do with the quality of youth activities in the community. Although parents and teachers and community agencies may, and frequently do, disagree sharply as to the relative influence of school and home and outside agencies on youth behavior, we do know there is some direct influence by schools. Home study, after-school activities held at school, and after-school activities encouraged by the school occupy varying proportions of youth's extraschool time. Furthermore, there is some direct influence on youth behavior through the teaching many receive in school about such matters as driving, safety, entertainment, work, etiquette, and sex, for example. The fact that people in the community believe that the school is an important factor in molding pupils' attitudes and behaviors is attested by the constant requests for the schools to teach a great variety of subjects, each of which some people feel are essential to a high quality of youth life. And so secondary school personnel are asked to do such diverse things as sponsor dances, enforce curfews, chaperon student parties; teach honesty,

temperance, character, thrift; provide recreation after school and during the summer; secure baby-sitters and others interested in performing similar work services; provide vocational training; make youth study, behave, and cooperate; increase church attendance, scout membership, and interest in service club activities; collect money, food, and clothing for charitable purposes; hold essay contests, athletic tournaments, scholarship competitions; send youth bands to parades, public programs, and community events in general; advocate safe driving, healthful living, and good sportsmanship; and on through an almost infinite assortment of ideals and activities that community groups believe the schools can and should promote to improve the present lives of their youth.

Finally, perhaps the greatest stake the community has in its secondary schools is their potential contribution to the life and work of its future citizens. If more technicians are needed, the schools are expected to train them or at least interest youth in technical training. If housing conditions, city government, or community morals are not what they should be, the community's public-spirited citizens hope that the schools can help produce a generation who will improve these conditions. But most of all, every parent expects the secondary school to help provide his child with the desire and the tools to become a good citizen, a happy individual, and an effective worker. The central concern of most adults in regard to schools is the *quality* of their children's education. All these ambitions for youth, and the school's role therein, constitute the real aims of the American people for public secondary education. When the schools fail in doing all these things for all their pupils, they are vigorously criticized. Nevertheless, the people of our communities continue their faith in secondary education as the hope of the future. We who do or would work in secondary schools must therefore be vigilant in our search for effective ways of relating community expectations and curriculum practices. Our first step, we believe, is to find successful ways of school-community cooperation in curriculum planning so that the community's stake in the curriculum may be looked at during the planning process rather than after plans are made and perhaps have either failed or ignored community expectations.

School-Community Cooperation in Curriculum Planning

Practices in the American community range from no community involvement in curriculum planning to community participation in every stage of planning. Although the predominant practice is probably still one of faculty planning with little or no direct reference to community groups, there has been a pronounced trend since or even before World War II toward various types of school-community cooperation in curriculum

planning. Some of the more frequent and promising instances of this cooperation are described below.

PLANNING COUNCILS AND COMMITTEES

As school people have recognized the desirability of community participation in planning the educational program, a great variety of school-community councils and committees have been organized in various towns, cities, counties, and states. Perhaps the most frequently used organization has been some system-wide (for the school system—town, city, special district, or county) citizens' committee primarily concerned with school finances and buildings. Stimulated in the 1950's by the emergency in school building problems and spearheaded by the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools and the 1955 White House Conference on Education, thousands of such local citizens' groups were formed. Some of these are concerned with curriculum planning and others are not. Major types of school-community councils and committees that are involved in curriculum planning for secondary schools may be classified as described in the following paragraphs.

System-wide school councils having rather general functions and including lay representatives. In some school systems lay representatives are appointed by the school superintendent or the board of education or sometimes by the parent-teacher organization to serve on a council made up primarily of school people. Such councils frequently function as advisory groups to the school administration and in some systems serve as clearinghouses for planning and reporting on curriculum experimentation in individual schools. In general, lay representatives are included to serve a liaison function; that is, the lay member expresses the point of view of his constituency (an organization, or parents, or the public in general) and perhaps reports council proceedings to it. Such a representative might, for example, inform the school system's council that the parents' organization is concerned about the lack of requirements in mathematics and report back to the organization on the council's reaction or steps taken. This type of representation, if the representative is well chosen and well received by the school group, may be very valuable in keeping the council and the organization represented mutually informed.

System-wide lay councils having rather general functions and including school representatives. In some school systems the plan is to have a general advisory lay council with school representatives who function somewhat like the lay representative on the school council. Typically, the school representative may have considerably more influence, at least in setting up agenda for the lay council, than the lay representative has on the school council. Typically, also, the lay council is primarily concerned

with educational matters other than curriculum and teaching, but these latter problems are at least discussed, even if referred to the school representative for action. For example, the lay council might recommend to the school representative (probably the superintendent) that the school curriculum committees and whoever else is concerned give serious consideration to the advisability of increasing graduation requirements in mathematics.

System-wide joint councils having rather general functions. In some school systems the intent is to avoid designating the council as either "school" or "community," representatives of both the schools and the community being chosen in somewhat equal numbers. Such a council may have a representative from each secondary school as well as from each major group in the community. If the problem of requirements in mathematics is considered, it would usually be threshed out rather completely with a decision reached either to support the present requirement or to recommend its change to the official governing body, that is, the board of education. Because of a tendency for such joint bodies to become legislative in their functioning, many educators prefer one of the types previously described. On the other hand, there is real value in representatives of the community and the schools coming to full agreement together. To preserve this value, and still expedite the business of the council, some systems use an executive committee or a small study committee to make a complete analysis of a problem and present proposals to the joint council.

System-wide committees having special functions. A more frequent type of community participation is found in the organization by school systems of special committees to consider specific problems. Thus if some local community organization calls to the school superintendent's attention a supposed need to increase mathematics requirements he may appoint a school-community committee to investigate present requirements, needs of high school graduates for more mathematical training, and related problems. This committee may be a joint one or primarily a school group with one or more lay representatives; it would probably not be a lay committee. Such committees are used particularly in the various fields of vocational education. For example, city-wide temporary committees were created by the Commission on American City Education in the Educational Policies Commission's hypothetical "American City" whenever, according to this report of a prototype organization, "a problem calling for special study might arise." Such special committees were established, according to the report, on such problems as "the educational needs of children under six years of age; employment trends and opportunities in American City; the out-of-school youth in the city and its environs; the needs for public education beyond the twelfth

grade; the essentials of an adequate program of vocational education; and plans for guidance in secondary schools.”¹

Individual school committees of all the types described for the system. In some school systems having one or more types of system-wide school-community councils or committees, individual secondary schools may also be encouraged to organize such groups from their faculties and school communities. Perhaps even more frequently, individual high schools in small communities, or in larger ones lacking system-wide co-operative planning, organize their own advisory and special school-community planning committees. Thus a particular high school may have a general advisory council and also such specific committees as may be found desirable.

In many communities, school-community committees are organized in cooperation with the parent-teacher association for studying special curriculum problems, such as the social program, homework, college entrance, vocational guidance, field trips, clubs, secret societies, and assemblies. The general councils and the special committees, like those of the system, may be primarily school or community or joint, with somewhat equal representation of the faculty and the community. Frequently high school students also serve in these planning groups.

Whatever their organization, it seems significant that so many schools and school systems are involving parents and laymen in general in planning the school program. This trend reflects a philosophy of school-community cooperation aptly expressed in the following statement of functions for the Citizens' Advisory Council in the Educational Policies Commission's "American City":

The functions proposed for the Citizens' Advisory Council on Education were (a) to assemble and present evidence of the needs in the community—especially among children and youth—that should be met by an improved educational program in the schools; (b) to review critically the reports of studies and the recommendations prepared by the Commission on American City Education and to suggest improvements; and (c) to keep their agencies and organizations informed as to the development of educational plans and programs. In order to carry out these functions, the council agreed to have regular meetings six times a year and to hold such special meetings as might be required.

The Citizens' Advisory Council elected its own chairman, and the chairman was made a member of the Commission on American City Education, thus providing a continuous liaison between these two major planning bodies.

Other lay organizations in American City soon learned that their interest in school affairs could profitably be communicated to the new advisory council. Some of them submitted recommendations and questions for study to the council.

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952), p. 21. The excerpts from this volume are reprinted with the permission of the publishers.

Others invited council leaders to speak at their meetings. Especially cooperative in such ways were the American City Council of Parent-Teacher Associations and its local units. The PTA groups sponsored neighborhood clinics for educational planning and also helped to recruit other citizens to attend meetings called by the advisory council.²

The movement toward community participation, properly directed and leaving to professional people the decisions and implementation which require professional knowledge and action, promises to cement the rightful relationship of the community to the curriculum of its schools. Some of the major areas for which planning occurs will be described below.

PLANNING GENERAL EDUCATION

Although the councils or committees which advise and assist in curriculum planning may be concerned with both general and specialized education, the primary interest of the community in general is, of course, with the program of common learnings or general education. Particular groups in the community may be, and are, interested in special programs for limited numbers of youth, but the general public is rightly concerned with the secondary school's program for educating future citizens. Lund describes the following problems as "genuine concerns of community life today and tomorrow, and in turn . . . personal concerns of the pupil when he assumes full responsibilities as a functioning adult citizen" and points out that they "should furnish a vital and realistic content for the school curriculum":

- Work experience for youth
- Community health
- Community recreation
- Community art and music
- Safety in the community
- Obligations of citizenship
- Home and community beautification
- Conservation of natural resources
- Community human relations
- Industrial relations
- Rural-urban relations³

Unfortunately, these concerns most frequently arise somewhat singly and negatively so that there is rarely from the beginning of a school's existence

² *Ibid.*, pp. 200-202.

³ See S. E. Torsten Lund, "Community Life and the Curriculum," Chapter 11 in Harl R. Douglass (ed.), *The High School Curriculum* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956), pp. 184-192.

a planned program of general education based on such significant community problems.

As noted earlier in this book, the secondary school program of studies is frequently tailored by reference to national, regional, and/or state standards instead of to local problems. Nevertheless, many of the problems listed above are typically represented by or included in some of the subjects, and it is up to the local faculty to make sure that the civics course, for example, deals with "obligations of citizenship" in the particular locality rather than only generally. And when local problems are not included in the school's subjects or are not treated as local problems in the courses in which they are included, then local planning groups may rightly concern themselves with curriculum planning to improve general education. Perhaps it is a healthy sign for community groups to be petitioning their secondary schools to teach more about local citizenship or industries or health, and so forth, for it is through such petitioning that many of our most effective school-community planning organizations and related curriculum plans develop. Secondary school teachers do well not only to be observant of community activities and problems and localize accordingly their teaching in such fields as social studies, science, and homemaking, but to be on the alert for suggestions from laymen as to the problems of community life to emphasize in school.

PROVIDING COMMUNITY RESOURCES FOR THE CURRICULUM

It is our opinion that the widespread use of community resources is one of the most significant recent developments in secondary education. Later this chapter describes the use in the curriculum of firsthand experiences in the community. The community is also brought into the school in a variety of ways for which school-community groups may plan. Some of the provisions for use of community resources in secondary schools are identified in the following paragraphs.

Use of people. High school teachers are becoming increasingly adept in using people from the community as resources. Examples of ways in which community people may be used in community study follow.

1. To speak to a class about some local event, historical or current, under study
2. To show movies, slides, or other visual aids about some plan or process in the community with which this person is intimately acquainted
3. To meet with a class after a field trip or demonstration or film to answer questions
4. To present issues or a point of view about issues which are of significance in the community

5. To help organize community surveys and other projects requiring special knowledge of one or more aspects of community life
6. To serve as a counselor throughout some extended study of specific community resources or problems
7. To counsel students about the choice of work in the community

People from the community may be used similarly with reference to events, problems, issues, and so forth, existing outside the community. The human resources of these types are so numerous and helpful in many communities that some continuing directory is maintained by the school or system as a ready reference for teachers wishing to plan for the use of resource people. The compilation and maintenance of such a directory is a fine project for a special school-community committee.

Use of printed materials. Community groups frequently provide helpful services to the schools through preparing or purchasing books, pamphlets, and other printed materials useful in pupils' study of the community. Commercial and other special-interest groups sometimes seek to advertise their products or advance their causes by presenting free materials to the schools. The amount and quality of such materials may make it desirable for a school-community committee to review and screen them. Such materials can be very helpful and widely used.

Free materials are also sometimes given the schools as a community service. For example, one of us has been associated with the preparation and publication for school use of a series of publications on life in the immediate geographic area of the school system concerned. These materials have been planned, through groups representing the school and the industry responsible for the program, to provide pupils with information not otherwise readily available about the economic life of the area. Attractively illustrated and interestingly written, these materials meet a real need in certain curriculum areas.

We should note also the great use made in many schools of books loaned to classrooms by public libraries. Not only do individual pupils make use of the collections, but teachers may withdraw quantities of materials for temporary use at school. Museums, newspaper publishers, commercial firms, and other community agencies are frequently highly cooperative in lending materials to the schools for use in the classroom.

Use of audiovisual materials. In many communities the schools have very inadequate collections of audiovisual aids, if any. Even for those which have well-stocked film libraries, for example, very fine services are provided by community agencies and commercial firms in lending films, filmstrips, slides, recordings, and museum pieces for use in school. Local radio and television stations may also be of great service in arranging broadcasts for school use, in providing announcements of educational broadcasts during out-of-school hours, and in assisting school groups to

prepare productions of their own. In some communities school-community committees on audiovisual education and for radio and television education plan and coordinate these services.

USE OF SCHOOL FACILITIES BY THE COMMUNITY

Effective school-community planning takes care not only of planning for the education of youth in school but also of planning for youth and adults not in school. The organized programs of adult education, continuation education, and community college education may be planned at least in part by school-community councils. In addition there are many less formal types of educational programs and services carried on in the secondary school plants of many communities. The potentialities of school buildings for community education and services were described as follows in a publication entitled *The Community School* of the National Society for the Study of Education:

School buildings can provide the desired physical facilities to meet the needs of the community-school program. They can provide shops, community chicken hatcheries, clubrooms, meeting places, and community libraries. Community-school buildings, including their surrounding school sites, can become demonstration areas of community progress. They can become the center for farm fairs, produce displays, cooking and sewing demonstrations, test-garden plots, and home landscaping.

Community-school buildings can become the major meeting places for the community. They can provide large assembly halls, auditoriums, small meeting rooms for Red Cross committees.

Community-school buildings can become resource centers. They can be the community library, the government pamphlet center; on a loan basis they can be the resource centers for milk-testing equipment, for tool-repair kits, for athletic equipment.

Community-school buildings can provide the equipment to send survey teams, mapping teams, and soil-testing teams out into the community. These services may be important in many communities where the school contains the only equipment available for chemical-analyses work, for land surveying, and for microscopy.

A community-school building and its facilities may be the communication and transportation center for a community. Its radio broadcasting station and its mimeograph machine may become vitally important in basic community communication. Its attendant school buses may be the major source of transportation available for community groups.

The community-school site and building facilities may make it the community horticultural and nursery center. Under some circumstances, it may provide the major source of fruit-tree grafts for its area. Under other circumstances, the school nursery may be the major source of plant materials for public buildings and their landscape areas.

The school building can become a manufacturing center for public purposes. Its facilities can be used to manufacture such items as school playground equipment, public park equipment and street signs.

This plethora of possibilities indicates that a community school can fulfill the aspirations of the residents of its community. All the possibilities sketched in the preceding paragraphs are measures of the demands of the community upon its community-school buildings.⁴

The many fine programs of adult education carried on in the schools of America exemplify school-community cooperation. In New York City six youth and adult centers operating in schools were reported in one of the Superintendent's official reports to be serving some 27,000 people in "informal" adult education programs. The programs begin at 3:00 P.M., when day school usually ends. Adults replace children in the classrooms. Classes in elementary school subjects and in English and citizenship are always included, but most of those attending come to sing, play the piano, work with their hands, talk about books or current affairs, listen to music, learn a foreign language, brush up on cooking and dressmaking, learn typing, bookkeeping, photography or blueprint reading, delve into philosophy, or play tennis, Ping-pong or swim. The offerings are planned "to give things that people have always wanted to do or study, but perhaps have touched only fleetingly because opportunities were rare, inaccessible or non-existent." In the evening sessions the students come from every walk of life—garment workers, stenographers, doctors, policemen, truck drivers, postal employees, teachers, mechanics, housewives, and college students.⁵

Each of these centers and many of the local community centers in New York City are aided by an advisory committee, whose membership includes officers of parents' associations, school principals, businessmen, labor leaders, representatives of welfare agencies, and other interested citizens.

PLANNING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

In specialized vocational schools it is common practice to utilize advisory boards of citizens, and for advisory committees representing the vocations concerned to plan for the various specialized fields with the vocational school administration and its departmental faculties. Such groups are also utilized in planning vocational aspects of the program of

⁴James A. Lewis and Russell E. Wilson, "School-Building Facilities for Community Schools," Chapter 9 in *The Community School* (Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953), Pt. II, pp. 148-149. Reprinted by permission of the Society.

⁵See *Adult Education*, (Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1954-1955; New York: Board of Education, 1956), Pt. V, pp. 17-18.

some comprehensive high schools. In his volume on *The Comprehensive High School*, Keller calls the vocational advisory board "indispensable," stating that "no high school that purports to be comprehensive can even approach comprehensiveness unless it is counseled, supported, and approved by representative employers, employees, and self-employed persons in all fields of activity in the community."⁶

How the vocational advisory committees function is shown in the following descriptions by Keller of their operation in three cities:

San Diego, California. In San Diego, California, thirty-six advisory committees operate, one for each grade taught. Some committees meet every month, others three or four times a year. All of them are highly regarded and frequently consulted. In the junior college catalog, under the description of each course, the names of the advisory committee members are preceded by the sentence, "The following representatives of ownership, management, and labor constitute the advisory committee in this curriculum." This is the greatest recognition given to vocational advisory groups in any community visited during the survey.⁷

Tacoma, Washington. In Tacoma the director of the Vocational-Technical School emphasizes the importance of advice and support that comes from industry. The state director of vocational education points out that this is an effective feature in all the vocational schools in the state of Washington. On the program of the graduation exercises are printed the names of all the members of the Tacoma Joint Apprenticeship Committees. There is a committee for each of the following trades: automotive machinists; detail mill men; bookbinders; linoleum, carpet, and soft tile workers; plumbers and steamfitters; brick masons and tile setters; electrical workers (construction); glass workers; machinists; job pressmen; shoe rebuilding; carpenters and shipwrights; electrical motor shop; lathers; meat cutters; plasterers; radio electricians; cement masons; neon and electric sign; boiler makers; molders; painters and decorators; sheet-metal workers; Tacoma City Light; topographers; watch makers and jewelers; upholsterers; sign painters.⁸

New York City. Under the guidance of a central advisory board on vocational and extension education, appointed by the Board of Education, fifty commissions, each one for a particular trade, counsel the school system on all phases of vocational education in all types of schools. The list of trades and corresponding commissions is a strikingly accurate cross-section of the economy of the city—printing, automotive, maritime aviation, food trades, electrical trades, beauty culture, needle trades, performing arts (music, drama, dance), commercial photography, and nursing. In many cases courses and schools would not have come into being had it not been for the prominent men and women, authorities in their fields, busy, competent, successful devotees of commerce and the arts,

⁶ Franklin Jefferson Keller, *The Comprehensive High School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955), p. 191. The following excerpts from this volume are reprinted with the permission of the publishers.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 193.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 193-194.

who have given of their time and energy to create and maintain better schools.

Board of Education members, superintendents, directors, principals must, in a sense, cover the entire range of human activity. To teach all the children all the things that everybody must know requires all-knowing men and women, which obviously, none of them is. Just as vocational education must specialize, those who administer it must also specialize or draw upon the knowledge of specialists. The advisory board members are those specialists. They constitute an elite "who's who" in the economic world. They know what kinds of qualities are needed in their respective occupations and they can tell the schoolmen what they need as to housing, equipment, staff, curriculum, and pupils. Moreover, they can help tremendously in getting what is needed from the Board of Education and the general public. Schoolmen do well to listen and act.⁹

In general, it is our belief that school-community curriculum planning in vocational education has been somewhat more extensive and successful than that in the field of general education. Perhaps the reason is that vocational education is more specialized and specific, so that a smaller segment of the general public is concerned with a particular trade. Furthermore, among those engaged in a trade one does not find the wide variance of opinion about training for this purpose that exists among citizens about training for citizenship! However, we believe that school-community planners might profitably experiment more extensively with advisory panels of specialists on each of such community problems as recreation, government, and health. These panels working with school personnel might develop more enlightened and productive recommendations concerning the high school curriculum than one would expect to come from a general advisory council representing a cross section of the public, although such a general group might well be a clearinghouse for the special panels.

PLANNING THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

As noted earlier, the post-World War II period in American education has been marked by a great increase in the number of institutions offering two years of post-high school work. This growth came about both as a result of the great increase in advanced education and related overcrowded conditions in colleges and universities and also as a phase of the movement toward universal secondary education with postponement of specific vocational training to near the end of or after the senior high school. Many of these institutions have some of the characteristics of a "community college." We accept for our purposes the definition of a community college given by the Educational Policies Commission:

Here, and elsewhere in this volume, the term "community college" refers to a free public educational institution, offering two years of education beyond

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 203-204.

the twelfth grade, in a variety of fields, both vocational and non-vocational. For most students, the course in the community college is "terminal," that is, it marks the end of full-time attendance at an educational institution. Some students, however, move on from the community college to professional schools or to the upper two years of liberal arts and technical colleges. The community college also conducts the program of part-time education for out-of-school youth and adults.¹⁰

Unfortunately perhaps, few if any American communities in which these new institutions have been established have followed the careful steps in planning related in the volume cited for the hypothetical "Farmville" and "American City" communities and the state of "Columbia." Our readers are referred to *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look* for these imaginary case studies of how community colleges and secondary education in general should be planned with full community participation.

The programs of the community colleges, many perhaps primarily "junior" colleges in that major emphasis is placed on the program for students going on to senior colleges and universities, vary as widely as the planning for them. We do discern increasing concern for the broad functions of the community college envisioned by the influential President's Commission on Higher Education in 1947 as follows:

First, the community college must make frequent surveys of its community so that it can adapt its program to the educational needs of its full-time students.

Second, since the program is expected to serve a cross section of the youth population, it is essential that consideration be given not only to apprentice training but also to cooperative procedures which provide for the older students alternate periods of attendance at college and remunerative work.

Third, the community college must prepare its students to live a rich and satisfying life, part of which involves earning a living. To this end, the total educational effort, general and vocational, of any student must be a well-integrated single program, not two programs.

Fourth, the community college must meet the needs also of those of its students who will go on to a more extended general education or to specialized and professional study at some other college or university.

Fifth, the community college must be the center for the administration of a comprehensive adult education program.¹¹

Such functions cannot be accurately discharged in a particular community, we believe, without considerable help from its citizens. The nature of essential community planning for this purpose was recommended as follows in 1957 by the President's Committee on Education beyond the High School:

¹⁰ Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 47, fn. 7.

¹¹ President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education For American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), III, 6-7.

Recognizing that community colleges are uniquely equipped to meet the particular needs of the individual community and to be responsive to the diverse interests of its citizens, the Committee recommends that communities anticipating substantial growth in student population consider the 2-year college as a possible solution to some of the problems of providing additional educational opportunities. However, the Committee also urges that this possibility be approached with caution. Careful planning is essential to insure success for this kind of educational program. There are already many colleges too small to be economical. Community planning must be closely related to State and regional planning in order to avoid the possibility of developing still more small, uneconomic units. The errors that were made in developing too many small high schools should not be repeated in the development of community colleges. Any community college program should be financed in such fashion as not to weaken financial support of the community's elementary and secondary schools. Without sound planning, what might have become a major community asset may become a community disappointment.¹²

Curriculum Experiences in the Community

The community offers a rich learning laboratory for its boys and girls. Whether or not the school is deliberately taking advantage of this laboratory, its pupils are spending more hours out of than in school and they are acquiring learnings, good or bad, during these out-of-school hours. We are concerned here with the deliberate use the school can make of learning experiences outside school, both during and after school hours. Our interest is further narrowed to include only those experiences in the community that the school can utilize to relate more closely school and community purposes and activities. Thus we are not dealing at this point with home study or other learning experiences that occur outside school but are related to the community only in that they occur in it.

Three major types of curriculum experiences in the community may be identified by reference to their purposes: (1) those to help youth understand the community—its institutions and problems; (2) those to assist community purposes and enterprises; and (3) those to bring about direct improvement in phases of community life. Each of these types of experiences is described in a following section.

FIRSTHAND STUDY OF THE COMMUNITY

The scope of community study is, of course, directly related to the size of the community. The adolescent living in a small town may find

¹² The President's Committee on Education beyond the High School, *Second Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, July, 1957), p. 72.

little new to learn about his community, whereas even the lifelong resident of the metropolitan community is rarely well informed about his city. Furthermore, communities change so that well-planned educational programs provide for somewhat continuous attention to community developments. Even in the small community, processes of government and work change and need intensive study by its future citizens. Accordingly, best practices in curriculum planning provide for study of the community in various curriculum areas at different levels.

Illustrative of the possibilities of community study in a metropolitan area is Table 40, which lists some of the problems for inclusion in the curriculum relative to the ten imperative educational needs, already

TABLE 40
The Community as a Laboratory

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH	SOME RELATED PROBLEMS	SOME SOURCES OF INFORMATION AND EXPERIENCE IN THE COMMUNITY
1. Salable skills	Available occupations	Chamber of commerce; employment service; occupational surveys
	Working conditions	Labor organizations; industrialists
	Work experience	Local industries, businesses, professions
	Specific training	Local industries, businesses, professions
2. Health and physical fitness	Health practices	Health department; medical societies
	Available health services	Health department; hospitals; clinics
	Facilities for fitness	Public parks and recreational facilities
3. Citizenship	Government services	Local government officials; courts; municipal utilities; public institutions
	Government and political organization	Local governing groups; political parties and leaders
	Civic obligations	Elections, tax boards, taxpayers' associations
4. Family life	Successful marriage	Divorce courts; social workers; churches
	Child care	Welfare agencies; nursery schools; homes for children

TABLE 40 (continued)
The Community as a Laboratory

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH	SOME RELATED PROBLEMS	SOME SOURCES OF INFORMATION AND EXPERIENCE IN THE COMMUNITY
4. Family life (continued)	Homemaking	Housing projects; markets; surveys
5. Consumer problems	Purchase of goods, services	Consumer and credit organizations; markets
	Use of goods and services	Consumer organizations; demonstrations
	Budgeting	Banks; consumer organizations
6. Science	Conservation of resources	Farms, forests, mines; naturalists
	Electricity and power	Power plants, dams, industries; engineers
	Social effects of science	Psychologists, sociologists, health department
7. Aesthetic appreciation	Literature	Theater, libraries
	Art	Museum, exhibits; architects, artists
	Music	Concerts, opera, radio stations; musicians
	Nature	Outdoors; nature clubs; naturalists
8. Leisure activities	Available activities	Commercial facilities; public facilities; television
	Evaluating activities	Censorship agencies; special interest groups
9. Cooperation	Cooperating organizations	Youth and community councils; churches; labor, industrial, business groups
	Intercultural problems	Interracial groups, interdenominational organizations, immigration office
10. Communication	Agencies of communication	Newspaper offices; radio and television stations
	Participation in groups	Forums; youth groups; civic clubs
	Effective listening	Public lectures, forums, panels

cited from the Educational Policies Commission's *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*, and community sources of information and experience related to these problems. In curriculum planning, those concerned usually reach tentative decisions as to the area and level in which local government, for example, is to be studied, and determine places to go and people to see in the community to learn about the organization, services, and problems of local government. Not all this study needs to be in the community, of course, for there may be printed materials that can be read at school as well as local government officials who can come to the classroom. But at some point a field trip to the city hall would undoubtedly be desirable, as would talks with local officials in their own places of work. Many school systems not only have written curriculum guides which indicate to teachers the possible uses of community experiences in relation to units of work in various subjects, but also have some central listing of community resources—places and people—that may be used by school groups.



Student Committees Interview Community Leaders to Secure Information for the Class. Here an interview with the mayor deals with problems of traffic in a community study. (Courtesy of the Burriss Laboratory School, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.)

Although the field trip by an entire class is perhaps the most usual type of planned study in the community, other arrangements are also possible. Rather than having one superficial, hurried visit made through city hall by the entire class, the civics class may be divided into committees, one to interview the mayor, another to attend a session of the city council, another a session of a municipal court, and so forth. The problem of supervision, or lack of it, for such committee work presents difficulties, however, and teachers find it sometimes preferable to designate individual pupils to carry on interviews and visits and report to the class. All three methods—total-class, small-group, and individual investigations—are frequently used, with the total group's field trip being primarily introductory to further study by small groups and individuals. In either case, problems of pupils' schedules, transportation, supervision, and the school's liability for pupils' actions and accidents away from school may be difficult. The ways of meeting these problems vary so much in accordance with the size, nature, and policies of schools and communities as to preclude consideration here. Sample forms to secure necessary approvals of a proposed field trip are shown in Figure 15.

SCHOOL SERVICES TO THE COMMUNITY

Since the publication of Paul Hanna's *Youth Serves the Community*, in 1936, a growing body of educational literature on school services has appeared. Excellent illustrations of service projects and programs may be found in some of the references cited at the end of the chapter, and include such types as these:

- Preparing and publishing recreational directories
- Assisting in community clean-up campaigns
- Organizing and conducting garden projects
- Producing music festivals for schools and churches
- Giving programs for shut-in children
- Supervising playgrounds for younger children •
- Serving as club leaders for younger children
- Operating loan libraries
- Assisting teachers in elementary schools •
- Serving as senior scout leaders
- Conducting bazaars
- Planning gifts for needy families
- Assisting in drives for social agencies
- Giving benefit musical concerts
- Giving programs at old people's homes
- Renovating and making toys for younger children •

Services (cooking, child care, and the like) to needy homes in emergencies
Assisting in nursery schools
Teaching church school classes
Arranging public exhibits
Assisting in landscaping projects
Conducting surveys for community agencies
Helping with seasonal harvests
Assisting with community canneries
Assisting in home demonstrations regarding food
Producing community carnivals
Helping in nuisance-elimination campaigns

Anyone who reads about or observes such projects will note great diversity in their organization and leadership. A project may be developed by a class, by the entire school, or by some group or individual. Leadership in these service projects may be within the school or within the community; or, better, there may be joint planning and joint leadership. In some instances students are assigned duties and carry them out without opportunity for exercising initiative; in others they participate in the planning and modification of their particular duties.

Another somewhat different concept of school service is that of the school as a community center. Actually, some schools, rural schools in particular, have long been community centers, for they serve as community meeting places; election polls; recreational centers; demonstrations of advances in homemaking, farming, and child care; and immunization clinics. In recent years urban schools, too, have taken on such functions, although here competition from commercial amusements is a seriously restricting factor. During World War II, the schools served as centers for rationing, collections of scarce commodities, and various other emergency programs. In any area undergoing an emergency such as flood or hurricane, the schools are usually the relief centers. Any school, however, can serve its community (1) as a meeting place for community groups; (2) for organized and unorganized instruction in whatever areas facilities are available; and (3) for recreation in the pool, in the gymnasium, in the arts and crafts room, or on the playground. Sometimes schools are open only in the evenings for adults, but they are now increasingly extending their facilities to young persons and adults at all times, with appropriate opportunities for both, in order to break down the artificial distinction between a "school for youth" and a "community for adults." A real community center is a place where all community groups, regardless of the age of their members, may follow common interests.

SAMPLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

PARENTS' PERMISSION FOR FIELD TRIP

School _____ Subject or Grade _____ Teacher _____

Date _____

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to certify that _____ has my
(child's name)

permission to make the trip to _____

(place)

on _____.

(date)

I understand that transportation is by walking _____ train _____
private cars _____ school bus _____ city bus _____
and that the cost of transportation is to be financed by the school _____
students _____ (Amount _____).

Signed: _____

Parent or Guardian

Figure 15a. Sample Form for Securing Parents' Approval of a Proposed Field Trip. (From *This Is Middletown*, compiled by the Workshop in the Utilization of Community Resources, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, June 14-July 23, 1954, pp. 25-26.)

SAMPLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

FIELD TRIP

Teacher _____

School _____ Subject or Grade _____

Proposed Trip to _____

Date of Trip: Day _____ Month _____ Year _____

Purposes of Field Trip _____

Transportation by: Walking _____ Private Cars _____ Train _____

School Bus _____ City Bus _____

Transportation paid by students _____ School _____

Has each student submitted to you a permission slip signed by his parents?

Yes _____ No _____

Number of Students Going _____ Other Persons _____

Arrangements for Classes Missed by Pupils or Teacher _____

Field Trip Approved by

_____ Principal

_____ Superintendent

Date of Request _____

(Requests should be submitted to the Superintendent for approval at least one week before date of the trip.)

Figure 15b. Sample Form for Securing Administrator's Approval of a Proposed Field Trip. (From *This Is Middletown*, compiled by the Workshop in the Utilization of Community Resources, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, June 14-July 23, 1954, pp. 25-26.)

That school services may be of interest to the general public is attested by the publication in *Reader's Digest* in January, 1957, of a condensation of a description of one school's service program. The following excerpt from the account of the program of the Hollywood (California) High School illustrates some of the types of services listed above:

Service extends beyond the campus, in opportunities available not only to [Service] Club members but to all students. For example, the community has been encouraged to call upon the school for aid with various projects. One of the biggest community ventures is the annual Easter sunrise service in the Hollywood Bowl. Every year since it was started, several hundred Hollywood High students have reported for work in the chill pre-dawn to act as ushers, members of the choir and collectors.

Each fall, the students raise money for a Christmas party for elementary-school children in a poor section of the city. Every year, too, they raise from \$500 to \$750 to maintain a bed in Crippled Children's Hospital—a little crib over which hangs a plaque bearing the Hollywood High motto: "Achieve the Honorable." The occupants generally have been anonymous, but two years ago one of the new boys in 10-B rose during an assembly and said: "If it hadn't been for Hollywood High students' generosity, I wouldn't be here today: I wouldn't be walking." A polio victim some years before, he had been one of the occupants of the crib.

Annually, the students have packed gift boxes for less fortunate children in other countries. The local chapter of the Red Cross has called the school's contribution to this program outstanding.

It is not easy to measure the full contribution that this spirit of service has made to good citizenship. But the experiment suggests that one effective answer to the nation-wide problem of teacher, classroom and money shortages may be the students themselves—growing up to the best that is in them.¹³

An article entitled "18,000,000 Teen-Agers Can't Be Wrong" in another popular magazine for January, 1957, surveyed factors making for delinquency and those leading in the opposite direction. Finding much to be commended in the behavior and constructive activities of youth, the author made this comment:

In a dozen communities—including San Francisco, Newman, Georgia, and Boulder, Colorado—I saw them seize civic responsibility in areas where adults had avoided or neglected it. In Atlanta, Georgia, and Evanston, Illinois, I saw them make a determined effort to solve the problems and help the wayward members of their own age group. In many a city and hamlet, I saw them reach out into unknown areas of science to blaze pioneer paths for adults to follow.¹⁴

¹³ Ruth Mulvey Harmer, "Three R's and an S for Service," *Reader's Digest*, 70:151-152 (January, 1957). Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

¹⁴ Bill Davidson, "18,000,000 Teen-Agers Can't Be Wrong," *Collier's*, 139:13 (January 4, 1957).

COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT PROJECTS

Many of these school services bring about improvement in some phase of community life. In addition, however, some secondary schools develop projects designed from the beginning to effect a fundamental improvement. Some of the best examples of these schools are those in rural areas of our southern states, although many metropolitan schools have carried on fine programs aimed to reduce juvenile delinquency. A pioneering program was that of the Holtville High School, Deatsville (Alabama), which has been described in many professional and popular publications.¹⁵ This school built up such diverse projects for the rural population that it served as a meat-processing plant, a cannery, a feed mill, a chicken hatchery, a dehydration plant, an auto repair shop, and a machine shop. All these enterprises were operated by pupils under faculty direction, as were the loan library for games, the bowling alley, the archery range, the barbecue pit, the weekly newspaper, the cooperative store and bank, the barber shop, and the beauty parlor. All of these projects were initiated to make Holtville a real "community school," serving as a center for community life to provide services for the enrichment and improvement of people's lives, with special attention to such fundamental problems as food production and nutrition. Somewhat similar projects of schools in twenty-two southern communities were reported in 1948 in McCharen's *Improving the Quality of Living: A Study of Community Schools in the South* (see "For Further Study"). Our own observation indicates that many projects to aid the people of rural communities in food production and preservation, home and farm improvement, and recreation have become characteristic features of rural high schools—especially of the vocational education and homemaking departments.

Examples of how schools in metropolitan areas can also bring about improvement in their communities may be found in a compilation of examples of *The Modern Community School*.¹⁶ To illustrate, in Minneapolis, the Council of Social Agencies sponsored the development of community centers to provide recreational and educational oppor-

¹⁵ See, for example, "Democracy in U.S. Schools," *Life*, 10:68-71 (January 13, 1941), and Carol Hughes, "The Town That Students Saved," *Coronet*, 23:95-98 (January, 1948). The most complete source is Whilden Wallace, James Chrietzberg, and Verner M. Sims, *The Story of Holtville* (Deatsville, Ala.: The authors, 1944).

¹⁶ See Edward G. Olsen, ed., *The Modern Community School* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953). This publication, sponsored by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, describes three imaginary "schools we need" for improving community living through community schools, and cites present practices like those desired actually found in various communities.

tunities for youth and adults. Objectives of these centers were cited as follows:

1. To provide educational and recreational opportunities for youth and adults of the community adjacent to the community center.
2. To provide convenient meeting places, without charge, for organized and informal community groups.
3. To co-ordinate the service of several community agencies and organizations in one educational and recreational program.
4. To serve as a demonstration of the wider use of school facilities.
5. To experiment with indirect approaches to the problems of improving human relationships in the community.¹⁷

In one of these, the Jordan Junior High School, three small rooms were joined by removing their partitions to make room for a branch library with 15,000 volumes. The school library was merged with this branch. The Park Board and the YMCA joined in supporting an expanded program of sports and recreation for men, women, and young people. The Red Cross conducted classes in swimming, lifesaving, cooking, and home nursing. On Friday nights boys and girls alternated with adults in the use of the school gymnasium for dancing directed by the Park Board instructors. A community band for working boys and girls, supported by the North Side Athletic Association, furnished music for general programs conducted by the center. Child psychology classes for parents were sponsored by the Community Council's Coordinating Committee. Offered also were public speaking by the Toastmasters' Club, photography by the Eastman Kodak Company, and courses in vegetable and landscape gardening sponsored by the Northrop King and Company, a large seed house. The youngsters of elementary school and junior high age were offered a recreational program after school from 3:30 to 5:30 P.M. four days a week; the Hi-Y boys took over on Friday.¹⁸

Work Experience in the Community

For present purposes work experience in the community is being considered as any work at a job outside school which a pupil is employed to perform. Such work may be done with or without relationship to the school program, although the primary interest here is in the related work. It is our belief that a highly effective way of achieving values important to youth, the community, and the school is the arrangement of worth-while work experiences in the occupations of the community. These values may now be identified.

¹⁷ From *The Modern Community School*, edited by Edward G. Olsen, p. 120. Copyright, 1953, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 122-123.

VALUES OF WORK EXPERIENCE

Almost every high school makes some effort to provide work experience for some of its students; probably no high school, other than trade or vocational schools, makes any effort to provide work for all of them. We believe that secondary schools might well assist with work experience more pupils who would not engage in profitable experience through their own resources. That is, we consider a work-experience program to have general education as well as vocational values and thus not to be of exclusive concern to a select group concerned only with the development of highly specialized skills. Surveys indicate, however, that the schools have never provided work experience for more than 10 per cent of their students.¹⁹

Such values as the following are usually ascribed to work experience for high school youth.

1. *Development of desirable attitudes toward work: its importance and social significance.* The high school boy who works in a downtown store after school and on Saturdays may be helped by the teacher-supervisor to appreciate the usefulness of his work in assisting people to make wise selections. The high school pupil-clerk also has an opportunity to learn firsthand of the jobs done by clerks, managers, buyers, bookkeepers, cashiers, janitors, and delivery boys, and to see how various jobs and workers are interdependent.

2. *Appreciation of such important traits as regularity, reliability, and cooperation.* It is common observation, for example, that students who have been almost habitually tardy at school are so motivated by a job to do, and the money they earn for it, that they get to their work on time!

3. *Understanding of proper employer-employee relationships.* The labor-management problem may be abstract in the textbook but it takes on meaning when students become apprentices, even under school auspices, in an industry.

4. *Development of good work habits and skills.* Opportunities to practice, even a few hours a week, such jobs as making change, keeping accurate sales slips, and answering a telephone may be far more effective than just talking about these matters in class.

5. *Acquisition of information about occupational opportunities and conditions.* A preferred way to learn about conditions in a dairy, for example, is obviously to work in a dairy, or better, several dairies.

6. *Motivation of learning in school.* It is a sound learning principle

¹⁹ Mary Smith and Ray Bryan, "Work Experience," Chapter 7 in *Review of Educational Research*, 26:404 (October, 1956).

that we learn best when we seek answers to questions that concern us. Students who bring to class questions about jobs they are actually doing outside school have a real motive for learning the information or techniques involved.

DEVELOPMENT OF WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

Work experience sponsored by the secondary school is essentially a twentieth-century development in the United States. In their comprehensive *Work Experience in High School*, Ivins and Runge credit Woodward High School of Cincinnati as being the first to establish (in 1910) a cooperative work-study course.²⁰ This program, modeled somewhat after the cooperative engineering course at the University of Cincinnati, provided for three hours of related training and academic study each day in addition to daily work on a job. Similar divisions of time for school and job have been used in many of the subsequent programs elsewhere. Before the various types of work-experience programs are described, however, mention should be made of the various developments since 1910 which have highlighted the work-experience movement.

Work experience in education, like any other educational development, is a reflection of social change. The need of young persons for work experience is certainly not new, but secondary schools have only recently assumed some responsibility for meeting it. For one reason, youth in urban centers especially may get little chance to work at home. With urbanization and electrification the chores at home became lighter, and sometimes nonexistent. Many students now in high school have never done work for which they were responsible to, and were paid by, an employer. At the same time that home life was changing, so was the population of the secondary school. In 1900 the great majority of our population went to work without the benefit of a high school education. Today the majority have been to high school and increasingly large numbers have been to college. Approximately 90 per cent of those who go to work, according to the present distribution of workers, will not be engaged in the professions and can get at least some of their training for work during their high school years. Hence during the twentieth century both the need and the opportunity for work experience in high school is increasing.

The initiation of vocational education in secondary schools by the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 is an important milestone in the development of work-experience programs. Vocational education, in general, relies heavily on specific training on the job. Farm projects, for example,

²⁰ Wilson H. Ivins and William B. Runge, *Work Experience in High School* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951), p. 59.

are characteristic of the vocational agricultural program. Further developing the cooperative work-experience plan is the distributive education program first authorized in 1936 by the George-Deen Act. In this program students enrolled in retail selling, for example, spend a part of the school day working in a store under the supervision of a school coordinator. Their work in school includes general courses required for graduation as well as job-related courses in distributive education. A similar plan is followed with regard to the diversified occupations programs, both those supported by federal funds and those developed locally without federal support. The influence of the federal aid legislation has undoubtedly been very great both in emphasizing and making possible adequate programs of vocational education and in implementing the cooperative work-experience principle.

The depression of the 1930's brought about somewhat different interests in work experience but also its expansion. Youth needed financial assistance to stay in school, and they needed to stay in school if for no better reason than that jobs were hard to get. Through the National Youth Administration the federal government provided for the part-time employment of hundreds of thousands of high school and college students from 1935 to 1943. School people became accustomed to having many jobs done by students rather than by adults, and after the dissolution of the National Youth Administration the part-time work-experience plan was continued in many instances. The depression had also stimulated many studies of the problems of youth, especially those related to unemployment and vocational difficulties. Perhaps the most significant of these studies were those carried on by the American Youth Commission, whose final report, *Youth and the Future*, contained the following recommendation:

... In many cases and not for financial reasons, pupils in the upper years of high school and junior colleges should divide their time equally between school attendance and wage employment. Half-time work in private employment, with half-time devoted to instruction in the schools, would be an especially appropriate type of program for the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades.²¹

World War II brought about widespread implementation of this recommendation, but primarily to solve the manpower shortage rather than to improve the education of boys and girls. Accelerated schedules were followed in many high schools, and many students attended school four hours and worked four or more hours a day. Apprenticeship-training programs, with vocational departments giving related courses and supervision, were expanded for war training and later for the education

²¹ American Youth Commission, *Youth and the Future* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1942), p. 124.

of veterans. Also, during the war many schools organized High School Victory Corps under the auspices of the United States Office of Education; these gave students experience in such varied school and community activities involved in the war effort as collection of paper and scrap, rationing of goods, production of crops, maintenance of home gardens, assistance in war industries, and care of children of mothers employed in the war industry.

After the war many schools tried to maintain work-experience programs or to develop new programs that would give students experiences similar to those they had received during the war. However, the generally prosperous conditions which prevailed in the United States in the years after the war's end in 1945 did not favor extension of work-experience programs. Fewer adolescents needed income than needed it in the 1930's, and many more planned to have specialized vocational training in colleges and universities. Although the cooperative programs have been continued and expanded to include additional types of occupational experiences, the proportion of high school students participating in these programs has remained small. No new programs have been developed to involve large numbers of boys and girls not enrolled in the cooperative programs. A 1957 survey of research on work experience concluded: "Since work experience programs are presently serving only up to 10 per cent of the students, more research should be carried out to aid the other 90 per cent. . . . If school administrators want to serve all students, they should be more interested in work experience programs." ²²

TYPES OF WORK EXPERIENCE IN THE COMMUNITY

In addition to the work experience many boys and girls get in school both as a part of their program of studies and as voluntary or paid services in the library, cafeteria, office, and elsewhere, at least three types of work experience in the community may be identified. First of all, there are the many jobs high school youth are carrying on without reference to their school program. Various surveys of the part-time employment of high school boys and girls indicate that from one third to one half are generally making occasional or regular wages in a variety of jobs. Some of these jobs have little value in occupational training, of course, but many do, and it is unfortunate that some of these are not related to the curriculum at school.

Secondly, there are the occasional work projects which may involve large numbers of high school students. For example, some of the community service projects described earlier in the chapter definitely provide work experience to the participating youth. In agricultural areas,

²² Smith and Bryan, *loc. cit.*, p. 410.

arrangements may be made through the high school to use a corps of boys and girls in harvesting. Seasonal sales forces may be recruited for holiday periods or special occasions. In fact, any short-term need in a community for additional manpower not required to have special training may bring a request for the school to organize work crews from its student body. So long as these experiences have good learning possibilities and do not exploit boys and girls, we see them as valuable means of relating school and community interests as well as of serving the purposes of work experience listed earlier. We note too in Chapter 15 that school camping programs may provide valuable work experience.

The third and most significant type of work experience in the community is the cooperative type of school and work programs developed in this century. This type of program, begun even before the Smith-Hughes Act but partially maintained by subsequent federal legislation, has been promoted by federally aided vocational education but is also followed in many schools and work areas not federally supported. The basic plan is that of part-time work on a job, with related training plus general courses in high school. Paraphrased below is an example from the book of Ivins and Runge to illustrate the working of the diversified occupations program and also most other types of cooperative work-experience programs, including distributive education, office practice, and various locally developed programs with their own names.

Joe Andrews was a junior in high school, more interested in becoming a garage operator than in any other vocational plan. However, he also desired to finish his high school course and graduate. His homeroom adviser sent Joe to the school's program coordinator. The coordinator ascertained that (1) Joe's test revealed an aptitude for mechanical work; (2) his abilities were suitable for the work; (3) Joe was temperamentally suited for this type of work; (4) his physical condition was good; (5) Joe's parents approved of his wishes; and (6) in general, preparation for garage mechanics and operation was a desirable course for Joe.

The coordinator enrolled Joe for training in a local garage after consultation and agreement with the proprietor. Joe planned his in-school program to include courses in English, in civics, and in another called "diversified occupations." The first two were required junior courses; the third was a course taught by the coordinator and designed to assist students like Joe to adjust to work experience. When Joe began his program he went to school three and a half hours every morning and worked at the garage every afternoon from one to five o'clock and on Saturdays. After he follows this routine for two years, Joe (if he is capable and diligent) can graduate from high school and also be well on his way to being an automobile mechanic who can eventually buy and operate his own garage.

Ivins and Runge commented that such arrangements were possible in as many as five hundred different occupations.²³

²³ See Ivins and Runge, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

EXTENDING AND IMPROVING WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

If work experience is potentially as valuable for all youth as most of us believe it is, and if only 10 per cent are now securing it through the school, with perhaps another 50 per cent having outside, unrelated work experience, it is clear that American communities and schools have a major challenge in this particular. We believe that the secondary school teachers of the future will need to be informed about, and, we hope, interested in, the possibilities of school-community cooperation in providing work-experience programs for high school youth. Those who are interested in extending and improving these programs may well examine such questions as follow with reference to their community and school:

1. Are other persons interested in developing a work-experience program? What is the interest of parents, employers, and labor organizations in more work experience for boys and girls? Is there some school-community group which is interested in undertaking or sponsoring a study of work experiences?

2. What work are boys and girls already doing in the community? Could they do some jobs better if they had related training in school? Could some classes give special attention to some of the jobs that many youth hold outside school as baby-sitters, newspaper boys, grocery clerks, and so forth?

3. What jobs are pupils doing in school that point to work in the community? How can pupils who do good work on their school jobs be helped to get broader experience in the community?

4. What jobs in the community can be done by high school boys and girls on a part-time basis? Which of these have educational value? How can continuing inventories be maintained of these job opportunities?

5. How can boys and girls working on school-sponsored community jobs be supervised? What cooperative arrangements can be made for the school schedules of boys and girls who work at these jobs and for the teachers who supervise them? What credit toward graduation can be given for work experience? What financial support is available for the program?

The Community School Concept

Reference has been made repeatedly in this chapter to the "community school" and also to publications dealing with this particular emphasis.²⁴ Although the term is frequently used in such discussions

²⁴ See especially Olsen, *op. cit.*, and National Society for the Study of Education, *The Community School*, for full development of this concept.

of school-community relationships, we ourselves find it very difficult to define "community school" so as to distinguish such a school from any good school. That is, we believe that a basic criterion of a secondary school is the quality of its relationship to the life of the community. A good secondary school, we believe, will have the following characteristics, among others, in its community relationships:

1. Community representatives are actively involved in the planning of many phases of the school's program, and the school's program is planned in relationship to the purposes and programs of other community agencies.
2. The school's curriculum includes many experiences which grow out of and are developed in terms of life in the community.
3. The pupils participate fully in many community activities, both to learn more about the community and to serve community enterprises.
4. The resources of the community are utilized fully in the curriculum of the school.
5. The facilities of the school are available as necessary for desirable use by the people of the community.
6. The lives of pupils out of school are of concern to teachers, who try to coordinate in-and-out-of-school learning experiences so far as possible.
7. Pupils are given as much help as possible in having worth-while work experiences in the community which are related as possible and desirable to classroom instruction.

Schools that are characterized by the foregoing principles will be community schools in the very best use of this term, we believe. In closing this chapter it is appropriate to note a fine but hypothetical example of such a school as envisioned by a group of educators and architects, whose conclusions were published as a description of "The Random Falls Idea." This idea was one of "a program of apprenticeship, partnership and achievement in citizenship—of youth development through meaningful participation in civic and community living—and of national strength through the development of the nation's human, institutional and physical resources by the maximum achievement of the potential of each individual within the framework of a healthy democratic society."²⁵ The proposed program for "The Random Falls Idea" is developed in three areas: "(1) Citizenship Development, through vocational and service contract with local (and ultimately state and national) employers and agencies which are planned by the student and his advisors; (2) Development of the Individual's Resources, through the body

²⁵ Archibald Shaw and John Lyon Reid, "The Random Falls Idea," *School Executive*, 75:48-49 (March, 1956).

of common and specialized learning pursued within the confines of the school campus; and (3) Community Services, the utilization by the student of community services (physical and human) as well as the use of school resources (again persons as well as things) by members of the community."²⁶ This third area, which is particularly relevant to our present chapter, included wide cooperation of the community and its people in planning and servicing the school program, and also a program of school services to the community. These school services were proposed to include provision of facilities and resources for testing and counseling adults, informal adult education, development of avocational interests, shop work, and applied research on farm and small-business problems. The entire proposal represents an advanced application of many of the school-community relationships described in this chapter and merits the careful study of all of us concerned with the future of secondary education in the United States.

For Further Study

American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association. *The High School in a Changing World*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958.

Chapter 4 describes the relation of better high schools to their communities.

American Youth Commission. *Youth and the Future*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1942.

See Chapter 2 for a review of the "New Deal" Civilian Conservation Corps and National Youth Administration programs, and Chapters 3, 4, and 8 for proposals of other work programs that seemed desirable in the nation's economy preceding World War II.

Byram, Harold M., and Ralph C. Wenrich. *Vocational Education and Practical Arts in the Community School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956.

Part I deals with the relationship of the school to the community with reference to vocational education and the practical arts.

Davidson, Bill. "18,000,000 Teen-Agers Can't Be Wrong," *Collier's*, 139:13-25 (January 4, 1957).

Cites many illustrations of constructive teen-age projects to support the fact cited that 97 per cent of American teen-agers are *nondelinquent*.

Education for Better Living: The Role of the School in Community Improvement. 1957 Yearbook on Education Around the World. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1956, No. 9. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 52.

Accounts of educational programs in 15 countries, designed to improve community living.

Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952.

See the chapters on "Farmville" (4-6) and "American City" (7-8) for accounts of these hypothetical community programs of youth education in high school and community college.

———. *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940.

See Chapter 5 for numerous illustrations of school activities in the community that have continuing possibilities.

Everett, Samuel, ed. *The Community School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1938.

An important early contribution to the literature of secondary education with reference to the community school concept. Describes in detail specific examples of community schools in urban and rural areas.

Hanna, Paul R., and research staff. *Youth Serves the Community*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936.

A study that has been an important stimulus to school-community projects. Includes examples of such projects in the fields of safety, beautification, health, agricultural and industrial improvement, civic arts, local history, and others.

Harmer, Ruth Mulvey. "Three R's and an S for Service," *Readers' Digest*, 70:150-152 (January, 1957).

Description of the community service program of the Hollywood (California) High School.

Havighurst, Robert J., and Bernice L. Neugarten. *Society and Education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1957.

See Chapter 6 on community agencies, and Chapter 9 on school-community relations.

Hunt, DeWitt. *Work Experience Education Programs in American Secondary Schools*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1957, No. 5. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957.

Describes six types of work experience programs and analyzes their operational procedures.

Ivins, Wilson H., and William B. Runge. *Work Experience in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951.

Detailed descriptions of the background and practices of work experience up to 1950.

Keller, Franklin Jefferson. *The Comprehensive High School*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955.

Includes descriptions of many vocational schools, their programs and operation.

Koopman, G. Robert. "My Town." East Lansing, Mich.: The author, March, 1956. Mimeographed.

A forward-looking analysis of the relation of school to community.

Legg, Caroline E., Carl A. Jessen, and Maris M. Proffitt. *School-and-Work Programs*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1947, No. 9. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947.

A study of World War II school-and-work programs in 136 school systems: arrangements for release of students for work, kinds of work, school control, and attitudes of pupils, school officials, employers, and labor.

Lund, S. E. Torsten. "Community Life and the Curriculum," Chapter 11 in Harl R. Douglass, ed., *The High School Curriculum*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956.

Excellent analysis of possible relationship of the curriculum to life in the community.

McCharen, W. K. *Improving the Quality of Living: A Study of Community Schools in the South*. Nashville: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948.

Descriptions of twenty-two school programs in the southern states.

Mercer, Blaine E., and Edwin R. Carr, eds. *Education and the Social Order*. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1957.

See especially Chapter 11 for several illustrations of school-community projects.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Adapting the Secondary School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Fifty-second Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

See Ivins' chapter (10) entitled "Providing for Work Experience and Outdoor Activities."

———. *The Community School*. Fifty-second Yearbook, Pt. II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Philosophy and practices of community schools. Describes community school concepts in other lands and relates entire idea to modern problems.

———. *The Public Junior College*. Fifty-sixth Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1956.

Describes philosophy and programs of public junior colleges, and presents analysis of problems in their improvement.

Olsen, Edward G., ed. *The Modern Community School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953.

Describes desirable and actual practices in schools which serve well their communities.

Page, Walter Hines. *The School That Built a Town*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952.

Following an introductory chapter on "The Fight for Better Schools, 1826-1952," by Roy E. Larsen, three addresses by the author are reproduced.

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part five

TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Teachers must know not only how to teach, but how to plan and evaluate their work in relation to all the other aspects of secondary education dealt with in this book. Teaching must be based on a sound foundation of knowledge of adolescence, and of the historical and social relationships, the curriculum, and the administrative structure of secondary education. In this book we are attempting to provide just such a foundation.

Hence we neither wish nor expect to develop here a methodology for secondary education. Instead, we wish to identify the major aspects of the teacher's job and indicate a point of view as to their importance and nature. We hope that what we have to say about teaching will encourage the reader to study methodology more thoroughly either from other sources now or in subsequent methods courses.

As we see it, the modern secondary school teacher has three major types of teaching tasks. The first, and the one that most people probably consider the job of teaching, is directing the learning of boys and girls enrolled in his classes. Although this phase of teaching consumes most of the teacher's day (see Figure 16), there are other time-consuming and important tasks. One of these is the responsibility for extraclass activities: home-rooms, clubs, social affairs, school publications, and so forth. Another task is related, timewise, to the first and second, but can be considered most conveniently sep-

arately. This is the teacher's utilization of the guidance and many other special services of the modern high school in an effort to help individual pupils. Each of these major tasks is considered in a chapter of Part Five.

15

Guiding Classroom Learning Experiences

Teaching in secondary schools is a highly rewarding occupation for people who like adolescents. Teen-age boys and girls are beset with many interests and aspirations, and classroom teaching is primarily a matter of relating these interests and aspirations to worth-while goals and directing the goal-seeking activities which result in learning. There are many differences among teachers, however, as to this "relating" and "directing," both in philosophy and in practice. This chapter will indicate what the differences are and also what we ourselves consider an acceptable philosophy and practice so that the reader may have this basis for appraising the teaching he sees and does, and for further study of teaching method.

We are not attempting here to identify the various "named" methods of teaching, such as the project, laboratory, Morrisonian, socialized recitation, and others, which were the subjects of much literature in educational methodology until recent years. A comprehensive review of researches on instructional procedures commented on "a trend away from the designation of various named methods of teaching and toward a more standard conception of a practice of teaching."¹ This practice of teaching includes the broad tasks identified in this chapter as characteristic to some extent of all teaching in secondary schools.

What Does the Teacher Do?

One way of analyzing the teacher's task is to study how he spends his time. Figure 16 shows the average distribution of the secondary

¹ See William M. Alexander and Samuel Ersoff, "Schools for Adolescents: Instructional Procedures," Chap. 6 in *Review of Educational Research*, 24:54-65 (February, 1954).

school teacher's week as revealed by a survey conducted by the Research Division of the National Education Association. Note that 75 per cent of the teacher's workweek of approximately 48 hours was spent in duties relating directly to classroom teaching, with approximately 23 hours being spent in classroom instruction and 13 hours in tasks created by classroom instruction. The remaining approximately 12 hours were devoted to what we are considering as extraclass activities and miscellaneous.

HOW THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHER DIVIDES THE WEEK

(Average work-week of 47 hours, 58 minutes)

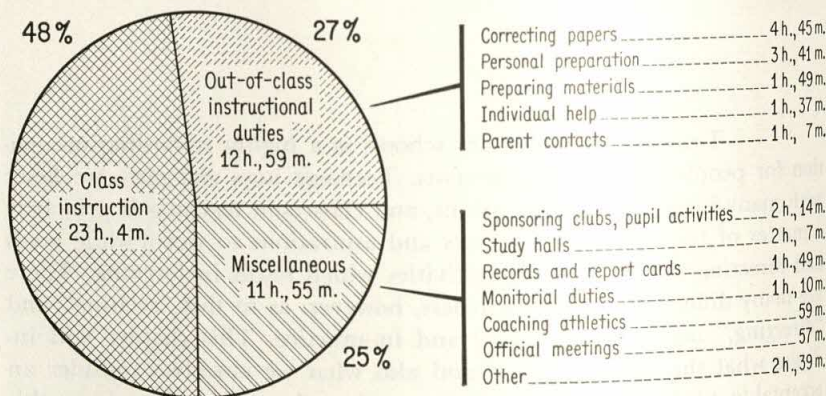


Figure 16. The Teacher's Week. (From Research Division, National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, 20:19, February, 1951.)

ous duties. Of these 12 hours, almost 2 were spent on records and report cards, a task that seems to be related to classroom instruction since most or all of the records and reports are for the pupils instructed. Hence from the time standpoint, the primary job of the teacher is to work with his assigned classes and to do the papers, plans, and other tasks necessary for these classes.

In practice, secondary school schedules are typically arranged so as to include six instructional periods a day. Many teachers have classes assigned for only five of these periods, with the sixth period, especially in senior high schools, used as a teacher's planning or conference period. Unfortunately, not all schools give teachers the planning period. The average time devoted to classroom teaching is reduced, however, by the frequent practice of giving some teachers one or more extra nonteaching periods for such special school duties as counseling pupils, supervising study hall or lunchroom, serving as chairman of a faculty depart-

ment, sponsoring an after-school activity, or operating the textbook or audiovisual collection.

More significant than the average time distribution are the nature of the activities of the teacher during the five periods a day, or thereabouts, devoted to directing classroom groups and the relation of these teaching activities to the other instructional tasks. Our experience in teaching and working with teachers indicates the following as a sensible classification of a teacher's activities in classroom teaching:

1. Planning for the classroom
2. Organizing the learning situation
3. Guiding total class experiences
4. Guiding small groups in the classroom
5. Helping individual pupils
6. Evaluating learning and teaching

There is wide variation as to how teachers carry on each of these activities, as to the time devoted to each, and as to their order and relationships. Nevertheless, there is in every class at least a little attention to each of these activities, and we find this classification, therefore, a convenient basis for identifying here the major tasks of the secondary school teacher in directing classroom learning experiences. Each of these six classes of a teacher's activities is described in a subsequent section of this chapter. First, however, we wish to examine briefly prevailing theories of the teaching-learning process so as to explain why teaching practice varies so greatly.

Theories of the Teaching-Learning Process

Observation of classroom practice in American secondary schools indicates at least three different interpretations of the teaching-learning process. Unfortunately, some teachers do not appear to have any clear-cut philosophy of teaching to justify their actions in the classroom, and one might note as still another practice a sort of "incidental" method of doing whatever occurs to the teacher, whether or not it has any logical basis in educational theory. This practice is the poorest of teaching, and we unhesitatingly advise our readers not to fall into its trap. The three more definite and logical theories and our own expansion or modification of the third are described below.

ABSORPTION AND TELLING

Unfortunately, many high school teachers use the lecture, the traditional and prevalent method of higher education, in directing the learn-

ing of their pupils. We suspect that the familiar definition of a lecture as the process whereby the teacher's notes are transferred from his notebook to those of his students, without passing through the minds of either, may be more fact than fiction!

The lecture method seems to be based on two assumptions, each of which we question:

1. The teacher's job is to *tell* pupils what they need to know.
2. The pupil learns by *absorbing* what the teacher tells, taking notes on the lecture, reviewing, perhaps memorizing, these later.

The fallacy in these assumptions is that learners infrequently need to know such identical ideas as to justify a telling process alone. Learning takes place as an individual consciously tries to get information about a question or problem that concerns him. To the extent that the lecturer is able to make his hearers concerned about the question or problem involved and further able to relate what he tells to the concern, then telling may be effective teaching. If he finds out the questions on which there is most need for help and if he welcomes questions during the lecture, interest and learning may be high.

We should note that the telling-absorbing theory underlies teaching practices other than the traditional lecture. A question-answer period in which the teacher is always expected to have the right answer is telling. So is a pupil reporting period, when a pupil or several pupils become tellers with other class members the absorbers. Outside people brought to the classroom to tell of an unusual experience, for example, are also being used as lecturers. Pupils and outsiders may use telling just as effectively as the teacher by relating what is told to pupils' questions and interests, by frequent illustrations related to pupils' previous experiences, and by interesting, brief presentations.

The telling procedure has many uses in the secondary school classroom, but it can be sorely overused and abused. A few illustrations of its many effective uses follow.

1. To present an overview of a topic or problem, indicating generalizations and principles, suggesting possible conclusions, and summarizing points for study.
2. To introduce a new idea in literature or science, for example, by explaining this idea in relation to current published statements and pupils' own ideas.
3. To explain, preferably with demonstrations, a new process in mathematics, science, or, in fact, any laboratory type of subject.
4. To tell of incidents in the teacher's or other teller's experiences that relate to a topic under discussion in history, government, or other social studies subject.

5. To explain cultural backgrounds related to the study of a language, comparing these with our own American customs.
6. To introduce, preview, or review a book, a visual aid, or other resource for pupils' learning that pupils are about to study, showing by demonstration and questions and answers how the resource is best used.

MEMORIZING AND DRILLING

Although widely criticized, question-answer recitations and other forms of drill are probably used more extensively than any other procedure in high school classrooms. The teacher assigns work to be "learned" (that is, memorized), the pupil memorizes or attempts to, and the class period is spent in the pupils' *recitation* of what has been assigned! Underlying this practice are these assumptions:

1. That memorization and learning are one and the same.
2. That all pupils need drill on the same material.
3. That recitation and other forms of drill help fix learnings in pupils' minds.

We believe that these assumptions as stated are open to considerable question. First of all, many researches have established the fact that memorization does not necessarily mean mastery. That is, mere ability to repeat mechanically a formula, rule, or quotation in no way assures ability to use what is repeated. On the other hand, material which is understood does sometimes become more readily available to the learner if he spends some time in memorizing it. For example, there is little value in a pupil's memorizing definitions of the parts of speech when he does not recognize the latter in a sentence. When, however, he begins to associate names and nouns and can identify nouns in sentences, it may help his further use of words to drill himself on definitions of the classes of nouns. As to the second assumption, the wide range of abilities in every classroom is such that very rarely do all pupils need to drill at the same time on the same material. In the ninth-grade English class, for example, are typically some pupils who can identify and use correctly parts of speech without hesitation, others who may have some understanding of nouns and verbs but little of other parts of speech, and still others to whom a noun or a verb is a completely meaningless abstraction. To make all these pupils do practice exercises on nouns and verbs is a waste of time for these first and third groups. For the second group, whose members have learned to identify nouns and verbs but not other parts of speech, practice in such identifications may help in further analysis of words.

There is a basis of fact in the third assumption: that drill helps

fix learnings. Three steps are necessary in the acquisition of any skill: first, a desire to acquire it; second, an understanding of how to perform it; and, third, practice to increase efficiency in its performance. The recitation, however, is in general an ineffective form of drill. Individual learners do not necessarily increase their own ability to define terms, apply formulas, or conjugate verbs by hearing other pupils do this in rotation. More frequently, we fear, the pupil is wondering what he will be called on to do or when the period will end or what is wrong with the pupil who is reciting so poorly. The most effective drill on most skills is self-drill or drill in pairs or small groups. Thus practice on the typewriter or on the basketball court as well as on vocabulary in a language or formulas in science or mathematics is helped by another person who holds the stop watch or tallies the goals or checks the vocabulary or formulas. But practice in front of thirty other disinterested pupils is not, we believe, effective.

To summarize, we believe that learning may be helped at times by systematic drill. Memorization may help fix learnings. Individual pupils need drill on the same material at different times. Self-drill and drill aided by another person is generally preferable to recitation of memorized material before an entire class. With this restatement of the assumptions, we would agree that memorizing and drilling do have a place in the teaching program. But they should never, we think, constitute the entire program.

EXPERIENCE AND GUIDANCE

Another and more popular theory of the teaching-learning process conceives of teaching as the guidance of pupils' experiences. Underlying this theory is the plain fact that all of us, including boys and girls, learn from our experiences. The better the quality of the experience, the better the learning, we know. The teacher's job, according to this philosophy, is to arrange experiences in the classroom of such high quality that effective learning will result. We know that boys and girls can and do learn without teachers, but we expect their learning to be better with teaching. Otherwise there is no justification for schools and teachers.

This theory is indisputable, but it leaves some persons with a question as to the teacher's role. Does the teacher simply serve as a sort of arranger and referee as boys and girls have their experiences? Is teacher "guidance" a somewhat limited conception of the teacher's role? Could guidance of experiences be interpreted to justify little teacher direction and little intellectual activity on the part of pupils? Because these questions do exist, even though primarily matters of semantics, we like some-

what better the definition of teaching as the direction of pupils' problem-solving activities in classroom learning experiences.

DIRECTING PROBLEM-SOLVING ACTIVITIES

Problem solving is really the way of learning. In learning, there is always some need, dissatisfaction, goal of the learner we term "problem." Once the problem is identified, the learner moves to solve it. For example, a tenth-grader is dissatisfied with his ability to use the microscope successfully in the biology class. He speaks to his teacher about this, who points out that the pupil is not handling the adjusting mechanism correctly. The teacher shows how to do this, the boy tries after him, and believes he has now solved a problem. Repeated uses of the microscope attest his new-found skill. Or, on a somewhat more impelling basis, he feels an acute need to be liked by a certain other student in the class. He tries smiles and conversation to no avail. But when he sees that his would-be friend is having difficulty with the microscope also and shows her how to use it, he is rewarded with a nice "thank you" and a smile. Further conversations are more rewarding. Problems of adolescents vary from such minor, short-term needs to more basic ones that are solved only over longer periods. Whatever their nature, problems are solved by such actions of the learner as are necessary. These actions are learning activities which, properly directed, lead to a solution of the problem, that is, the learning product.

Effective teaching consists, as we see it, of helping pupils identify and solve significant problems. Sometimes these problems are originally those of the pupil and sometimes they are modified or even set by the teacher's direction. The teacher is challenged to learn as much as possible about boys' and girls' own conceptions of their problems, to relate these as much as possible to significant educational goals; if this is not possible, to help boys and girls accept as their own problems these goals, and then to help these pupils plan appropriate learning activities and finally to evaluate the learnings they acquire. Problem solving or learning, it must be emphasized, is an individual process. The secondary school teacher must teach, in classes, many different individuals daily. Although proper group direction helps to make for common problems and problem-solving activities, the teacher must continually be aware of the variations in the group. This is why we see teaching as consisting not of one pattern of activities repeated period after period, day after day, but rather a composite of many activities so selected and balanced as to promote maximal learning by all the pupils in each class.

Thus, directing problem-solving activities through classroom learning experiences includes lectures when lectures are the most economical

means of clarifying or introducing problems or problem-solving activities. It involves assigning and directing drill for individuals who need drill to increase their performance or efficiency. At all times it is guidance of pupils' experiences in relation to learning goals. At one time these experiences may be most effectively directed with the total class, at another with small groups within a class, and at another with individual pupils. Teaching is always the process of directing pupils' problem-solving activities, but the techniques of direction vary with the needs of the situation and the pupils. There are, however, some basic classifications, according to purpose, of a teacher's activities which we may now examine to help our readers identify more fully the teacher's role in the classroom.

Planning Classroom Learning Experiences

The teacher's responsibility for planning classroom learning experiences includes three types of planning activities. First, as a member of a school faculty each teacher has a responsibility for participating in the planning of the entire school program. Second, the teacher must plan the instructional program, both for the entire period of instruction and from day to day, for his own classes. Third, the effective teacher must also plan with his pupils for their group and individual learning experiences. This section will identify the major tasks of the second and third types of planning activities as just described.

SETTING INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES

For every class taught, whether in a strictly departmentalized or core curriculum plan, there are purposes or goals or objectives or outcomes sought by the teacher. (Such terms are used synonymously by teachers and little is gained by attempting to differentiate shades of meaning.) One can observe classes in which the only purpose seemingly sought is that of memorizing the textbook, and one can also observe classes in which there is such confusion of procedure as to suggest that there are no major purposes. But most classroom teachers—and we would hope pupils, too—could state rather clearly a few major purposes of the year's work of each class. Sometimes these purposes are found written down in the teacher's plan book, or in a brief syllabus given pupils, or, at the beginning of the year, on the blackboard. Sometimes the purposes are taken from a printed course of study for the school system, sometimes they have been stated by several teachers of the same subject, and sometimes they have been developed by the teacher, perhaps with the help of the class.

The significant point for this discussion is that each teacher does have in writing or in mind (and we think it helps to have them written

down) a brief list of purposes for the class. In best practice the teacher prepares the statement himself, after consulting any written statements in courses of study and syllabuses and after talking with any other teachers of the same subject and, especially, after getting acquainted with class members. The statement itself is *comprehensive*; that is, it includes all the really important purposes the teacher anticipates. An example of a partial list of the purposes stated by one teacher for his ninth-grade civics class follows.

- To understand the organization and functions of the chief divisions of our city's government
- To understand the organization and functions of the chief divisions of our state's government
- To relate the work of our city and state governmental agencies to everyday activities of the citizen
- To learn how to use a voting machine
- To learn how to prepare a state income tax report
- To identify correctly current leaders in our local and state government
- To appreciate the role of the citizen in lawmaking and law observance
- To use correctly terms common in local and state government
- To read with understanding publications of and about our local and state government

Note that this sample, partial statement of purposes includes skills, understandings, and attitudes, and that it refers to both broad understandings and rather specific ones. A comprehensive statement should omit nothing that the teacher in September feels important. However, the statement should also be realistic and flexible. We doubt, for example, whether the first two statements above are very realistic for some pupils, and an improvement of the first of these might be: "To understand the responsibilities of the mayor and the city council, and the five departments of city government." Flexibility in purposes is a matter of use rather than statement, although it helps the teacher not to be too ambitious originally in listing, for example, a great many terms pupils are to learn to identify.

PLANNING THE FRAMEWORK OF INSTRUCTION

Once the purposes are tentatively set for the class, the teacher determines some type of organization for the semester or year. This may amount to a decision to cover the first third of the textbook by Christmas, and the second third between Christmas and Easter! In effective teaching, however, it generally involves deciding on a tentative list of *units of work* that should at least be considered from time to time in selecting those to be done. A unit of work is an organization of learning experi-

ences around some central topic, problem, division of subject matter, or other source of unity. The plan for a class must have some division points, and units of work represent major divisions. Thus, the civics teacher whose purposes were quoted above might plan for units organized around such topics as the mayor and the city council, the departments of city government, voting, taxes, or lawmaking and law enforcement. Or he might prefer an organization based more closely on pupils' own experiences with local government and plan tentatively for such units as "How Are Our Tax Dollars Collected and Spent?" "Our City Government and Teen-Agers," or "Highways, Streets, and Government." Actually, unit titles are not nearly so significant as the learning experiences they cover.

The framework of instruction, like the purposes, may be adapted from a course of study or syllabus, or planned with other teachers, or developed wholly by the teacher. Although we personally favor the latter procedure, assuming that the teacher makes wise use of any existing written curriculum guides, we think the major task of the teacher is to set up some tentative mileposts, shifting them if necessary in the light of further teacher-pupil planning. For example, it is especially important to regard as very tentative any September plan as to time schedules. The unit of work may prove uninteresting and unproductive, or it may lead into many profitable avenues; in either case the original time allocation needs modification.

PLANNING UNITS OF WORK

Once major instructional purposes and divisions have been tentatively set, the teacher has the task of planning for each major division or unit of work. Here he may have the help of some published *resource unit* (a compilation of suggested learning experiences and resources related to some broad area) or of the textbook manual or of a *unit plan* (the teacher's outline of a unit of work as planned) from another year and/or another teacher, or he may be completely on his own. The beginning teacher particularly will do well to develop each unit plan singly and as he goes along. For one reason, he rarely has time to do otherwise. For another, he does well to involve the class in making the plan.

For example, the civics teacher of our example decided that a good beginning point in the study of local government was the mayor and the city council. He explains this to the class, and was asked if the study might be begun by a visit to the council in session. This was arranged and after the visit class members listed some twenty-five questions that they wanted to learn more about in regard to the mayor and the city council. Their further study of these questions, which did not differ too much

from the topics the teacher would have listed in planning the unit, was much more interesting and productive than it would have been without the field trip and the question-listing session.

A trap in unit planning into which teachers frequently fall may be illustrated by further references to this civics class. Suppose that in the following year our teacher again plans for the initial unit to be a study of the mayor and the city council. Should he simply present the twenty-five questions listed by the previous class and make these the point of departure? The problem-solving theory of teaching says "No," for the present group of boys and girls must also have an opportunity to formulate their questions and the questions are stimulated, perhaps created, by the firsthand contact with the mayor and the city council. Perhaps the new group will have fewer, more, or different questions; the important point is to use their questions as a basis of their learning experiences.

PLANNING EACH CLASS MEETING ✓

Effective teaching includes advance preparation for each meeting of each class, as well as guidance of pupils' own planning. Some schools require the preparation of lesson plans; others leave this to the teacher's own decision. We believe that it is essential for the teacher to have a plan for each class meeting, and that in general it is best for these to be noted in writing. Some type of folder or notebook or plan book for each class is very helpful.

Making the plan for each class meeting may take only a couple of minutes or so, but actual preparation done adequately is more time consuming. Among the teacher's tasks in preparing for the class meeting are these:

1. Study of the subject-matter material, not only the text but such supplementary sources as will help the teacher interpret whatever may need interpretation and explanation
2. Preparation of materials for pupils, such as lists of readings, directions, tests, and work exercises
3. Study of pupils' records and work, including marking of papers, recording of marks, and checking of records to determine the status and difficulties of individual pupils
4. Arrangement of physical facilities
5. Securing resources for learning: books, magazines, and pamphlets from the school library, and films or recordings from the audiovisual collection
6. Making records for future reference: evaluations of films used, compilation of readings done by pupils, and notes on pupils' cumulative records

All of these tasks are as time consuming as they are important, and the prospective teacher may well inquire when they are to be done. Although there is no simple answer—and no satisfactory one for the 8:30-3:00 teacher!—correct use of the planning period, if the teacher is lucky enough to have one, proper maintenance of notes and records during class periods, and some daily after-school time usually suffice for the teacher who works conscientiously and methodically. Not all of these tasks have to be done daily, and the beginning teacher may also be cheered by the certainty that experience will make them all come easier. But every good teacher expects to devote out-of-class time to his preparation, and we are certain that the forty-eight-hour workweek for teachers cited earlier in this chapter is no exaggeration.

Organizing the Learning Situation

Whatever the teacher's philosophy and procedures, one major task is that of organizing the physical and human elements of the learning situation. There are several phases of this task: setting the physical environment, organizing the class group, establishing an emotional climate, and securing and arranging learning resources.

SETTING THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Many high school classrooms give little appearance of having been prepared in any way for instruction of particular classes. Barren walls and shelves, a fixed arrangement of chairs, and little in the way of materials or displays to identify the room as a learning laboratory give no evidence of creative learning activity. Such rooms are too numerous, perhaps because of teachers' lack of awareness of the positive relationship of attractive physical arrangements and effective learning. It is also true that administrators and/or school custodians sometimes resist room arrangements and decorations on the ground that they create more work in cleaning, rearrangement, and so forth. Such an argument does not stand up if the teacher is resourceful in using pupil help in room arrangement and decoration.

On the other hand, many classrooms give every appearance of having been carefully arranged to promote learning. In another publication in which one of us collaborated, such a classroom was described as follows:

In contrast [to the traditional classroom], the laboratory type [of] classroom would infrequently find the teacher in front of the room because the faces would not be on him and what he is saying. Rather, attention would be focused on what students are saying and doing, individually or in smaller groups. The teacher's role is that of consultant, adviser, assistant, and coordinator to the

varied activities going on in the room. Movable seats allow for teams, committees, and subgroups to form in various parts of the room, and also permit the arrangement of the entire group in a circle, oval, or rectangle when the time has come for sharing individual or subgroup activities and learnings.

One is impressed with the physical activity and hum of voices present in the room. Even more interesting is the variety of activity. One boy is writing a news story describing what has happened in class the past two weeks; three students are preparing a model on a small table in one corner; three others are preparing a chart for presenting an idea to the total group; one group of six is not in the room because it is readying itself for a debate by reading in the school library; another girl is painting an impression of the story read to the class the day before by a student who had written it; the rest of the class is reading books from the classroom library at the rear of the room. For this unit of work the library numbers over 150 volumes, selected cooperatively by teachers and students from the school and public libraries.

In a storage cabinet there are a record player and tape recorder which have been borrowed for several days from the central storeroom of the school. The cabinet also houses ten or twelve individual and committee projects for this unit of study. The bulletin boards are full to overflowing with articles and pictures from current magazines, and reports and bits of writing from class members. The rolling book cart contains the three basic textbooks of the class in numbers sufficient for one-third to one-half of the class.²



Varied Materials Are Employed in Effective Learning Situations. Here students are interpreting literature by use of shadow puppets. (Courtesy of the Oklahoma City Schools.)

²William M. Alexander and Paul M. Halverson, *Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools* (New York: Rinehart & Company, 1956), pp. 74-76.

To set such a physical environment as this, teachers must have certain facilities available: movable furniture, the materials from the library, the cabinet, record player, tape recorder, and so forth. Although not all these and other desirable facilities may be available, it takes more than their availability to make such a room: a disposition on the part of the teacher to make maximum use of what is available and the energy and time to bring to and/or arrange in the classroom the various facilities. With such a disposition, the energy, and the time, a teacher can convert the most barren of classrooms into an attractive, functional learning center.

One result of overcrowded conditions in today's secondary schools presents a special problem in that many teachers, sometimes called "floaters," do not have exclusive use of a classroom or even teach all their classes in the same room. Sharing of classrooms by different teachers makes classroom arrangements more difficult for particular subjects. Nevertheless, we have observed very fine cooperation among teachers in sharing cabinet and bulletin board space and in working with each class to adjust furniture, blackboard, and other facilities for their best use during each period.

ORGANIZING THE CLASS GROUP

The organization of the class group itself involves a great many specific tasks which we can do no more than enumerate here. These tasks, as they exist in most classrooms, include the following:

1. Getting an accurate list of class members and making such daily attendance checks and reports as the school policy requires
2. Having such introductions made and other steps taken as necessary to assure acquaintance of teacher and pupils
3. Fixing responsibility, whether by appointment, election, volunteering, or rotation, for the daily duties that one pupil can perform, such as checking and/or reporting attendance, erasing blackboards, sharpening pencils, distributing and collecting materials
4. Designating committees, again whether by appointment, election, volunteering, or other means, for such frequent duties as handling instructional materials, arranging the room facilities, organizing social activities, caring for pupil welfare, or serving as a steering or advisory committee
5. Setting up any permanent seating arrangement that is desired, or perhaps setting up a plan for experimentation with different seating arrangements
6. Establishing ground rules of procedure and conduct, and reviewing these rules as necessary

7. Setting up any class officers, election procedures, and plan of conducting room meetings, if such are to be held
8. Settling on any small groups that are to work for temporary periods on special assignments, such as drill in arithmetic for an algebra class
9. Arranging times and procedures for committee meetings, individual conferences, and other special activities

These organizational tasks as stated refer particularly to the first sessions of a class group. All of them, however, deal with procedures that need to be reviewed and modified from time to time. There are also many additional tasks related to individual curriculum areas, such as designation of responsibility for particular laboratory desks or equipment in the science (or homemaking laboratory) or for shop supplies in industrial arts. All of these organizational tasks constitute one of the teacher's continuing responsibilities that relate critically to the success of classroom enterprises.

ESTABLISHING A FAVORABLE EMOTIONAL CLIMATE

One may see high school classes which exhibit extreme hostility of members to each other or to the teacher and, at the other extreme, those which reveal great respect and liking on the part of all group members for each other. Modern research is conclusive as to the greater likelihood that genuine learning will occur in the latter situation, which has no place for teaching practices that pit pupils against each other, employ heavy sarcasm and blame, restrict cooperative work, and, in general, engender resentment, fear, and tension. A favorable emotional climate, in our opinion, corresponds to Thelen's definition of a "free climate" in the following statement:

The word "climate" is used to speak about the state of affairs in the group with respect to dealing with feelings. A "free" climate is characterized by two properties: first, there are agreed-upon limits to expression, but within these limits anything can be expressed without fear of reprisal. Second, there is analysis of expressed feelings as important contributions to be reflected upon and understood. The group in which there is freedom to fight but not to work is one in which anything can be said but nothing can be reflected upon. The climate is one of license, not of freedom. Individuals do not grow in such a group.³

How to create such a favorable climate is a problem deserving thorough study. The effect of the teacher himself on the classroom climate is very great. The teacher's enthusiasm, friendliness, courtesy, directness of statement—or lack of these qualities—are readily reflected

³ Herbert A. Thelen, *Dynamics of Groups at Work* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1954), p. 227.

in the pupils' own behavior. Research has established the existence of positive relationships between these characteristics of the teacher and those of his pupils. A first step in the establishment of a favorable emotional climate in the classroom, then, is the development of a friendly, accepting attitude toward the teacher, and this as a consequence of the teacher's exhibiting such an attitude toward pupils.

Moreover, an influence of perhaps equal but related importance is the pupils' involvement in the planning process. If the pattern of teaching genuinely reflects the problem-solving nature of learning, and makes every effort to build instruction around matters that boys and girls in the class recognize as important to them, a good emotional atmosphere is assured. Tension and unhappiness and little learning come in situations where pupils are forced into exercises they neither understand nor care for because they see no relation of these tasks to their own needs and aspirations. Youth will push themselves, we believe, when they have a vital stake in the job to be done, and they will do so without resentment.

SECURING AND ARRANGING LEARNING RESOURCES

We consider as a resource for learning any source, human or material, from which a learner gets information or other help in solving a learning problem. Thus, learning resources are almost infinite in number and type. Obviously, the teacher cannot summon any person or thing in existence to answer a pupil's question, but he frequently can summon many more resources than one finds used in a classroom. In another publication we catalogued and described in more detail the following as types of resources for learning readily available to classroom teachers:

Human Resources

The teacher as a resource person

Learners as resources for each other

Pairs of learners

Learners whose unique experiences help others

Learners whose special competencies help others

Learners in special roles in group situations

Learners as liaison with outside resources

School personnel as resources

Community people as resources

Environmental Resources

General classrooms

Special-purpose rooms: shops, laboratories, band room, library, audiovisual rooms for handicapped learners, medical facilities, kitchen, homemaking apartment, museum, and so forth

All-school facilities: auditorium, theater, cafeteria or lunchroom, gymnasium, corridors

School grounds

Resources in the community: institutions, businesses, industries, farms, terminals, museums, libraries, governmental offices, radio and television stations, newspaper plants, telephone and telegraph offices, post offices, theaters

Resources beyond the local community

Printed Resources

Textbooks

Study and testing materials

Classroom library materials

School library materials

Newspapers and magazines

Free and inexpensive printed materials

Printed resources in home and community

Audiovisual Materials

Pictures, slides, and filmstrips

Exhibit pieces

Maps, globes, and charts

Motion pictures

Recordings and transcriptions

Radio and television ⁴

Preparation for classroom teaching should include observation of teachers and pupils making use of many of these resources. It should also include actual handling of many types of printed and audiovisual resources related to the field of specialization.

Guiding Total Class Experiences

The traditional class period devoted to lecture and/or recitation rarely if ever was planned for other than teacher direction of the total group. The only break that might occur would be a supervised study period for individual pupils to work at their seats with some help available from the teacher. In the more varied activities one observes taking place in many modern classrooms several class organizations are possible. One day the class may be observed working as a whole in planning, discussing, reporting, teacher-telling, or group evaluation activities. At another period pupils are working in small committees, each preparing a report for the total class on some particular question; or there may be an individual work session with the teacher at work

⁴ See Chapter 14, "Selection and Use of Resources for Learning," in J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, *Curriculum Planning* (New York: Rinehart & Company, 1954).

first with one pupil and then another. On many days one part of the period may be used for total class activity and another part for small group or individual work. The plan for small-group and individual work is always made with the total class.

In most secondary school classrooms we may expect to find half, possibly more, of the total class time over a period of days or weeks used in total group activity. Among the most effective uses made of this time are those discussed in the following paragraphs.

LEADING DISCUSSIONS

A discussion is not a recitation, although one hears many recitations erroneously described as discussions. Whenever a group of people devote at least part of their time together to talking about questions, problems, or ideas regarding which there is not just one correct opinion or fact, they are engaging in discussion. In the classroom group a discussion exists, too, only as there are differences of opinions, facts, or ideas to be threshed out. Thus, in the history class there may be many discussions of "why" historical events occurred or resulted as they did, but the facts of the occurrence are not subject ordinarily to disagreement and difference of opinion.

The teacher's role in discussion situations is that of chairman, unless this is delegated to a pupil; other roles of the teacher are resource person, stimulator, and challenger. The teacher sees that issues for discussion are raised, that alternative positions are stated, that all the pertinent ideas are examined, and that any conclusions reached are justifiable. He is also on the alert for signs of interest and disinterest, for participation of many students and avoidance of monopoly, and for adherence to the topic at hand. Extensive experience in discussion situations in his college classes and clubs and other groups is most useful preparation for the beginning teacher.

PREPARING SUMMARIES

The preparation of summaries is exceedingly useful following many types of classroom learning experiences. Summarization helps learners to separate the important and unimportant, to evaluate what has been accomplished and what has been overlooked. Effective teachers see that summaries of a variety of sorts are used frequently. Thus a discussion may be ended by a summary of the chief points or conclusions determined. A series of reports may be summarized by a listing of major ideas. A field trip may be reviewed by a summary of the chief processes or features or other items observed.

The teacher may make the summaries himself, guide pupils in pre-

paring group summaries, or ask particular pupils to do the summarizing. All these procedures may be observed in effective use. The teacher frequently makes short summaries himself when time requires it, when there has been confusion in the discussion, or when there is need to show how to summarize. The preparation of blackboard summaries based on contributions of class members is one good way of drawing a discussion or other experience to an end. It is also good experience for individual students to prepare their own summaries for criticisms by the class.

GUIDING PLANNING BY THE GROUP

This chapter has already described the extended advance planning of instruction which should be done by every teacher. Such planning does not preclude effective pupil-teacher planning; indeed, it is our belief that effective pupil-teaching planning *must* be preceded by careful teacher planning. The teacher must have canvassed the alternatives in every situation where choices are to be made by pupils and be ready to give leadership in following through on any choice. For example, the alert teacher rarely asks pupils what unit they want to take up; instead, he asks of them which of several units they prefer. Obviously it is simpler just to assign a particular unit, but it is much better teaching to build on pupil interests. In doing so, the teacher has to be prepared for more than one interest and related unit.

Group planning is possible in many situations. The class as a whole may help in choosing units of work, in selecting particular learning experiences within a unit, in setting up procedures to be followed in discussions, field trips, role playing, dramatization, demonstrations, contests, and the many other types of experiences possible for secondary school classes. They may decide on the order of units or of experiences within the unit, even of the sequence of chapters in the textbook, all these choices of course depending on the teacher's feeling as to the necessity of a sequence other than that based on pupils' interests.

In group planning the role of the teacher is much like that described in regard to discussion in general. He sees that the choices to be made are clearly understood, that alternative choices are presented and their pros and cons fully considered, and that conclusions represent the best consensus possible. And he should also see that there is maximum participation, without domination of a few individuals. Frequently he takes censuses of pupils' desires regarding topics to be studied, materials to be used, assignments to be prepared, and the like, and guides consideration of the listing to agreement on priorities or "firsts." Again, previous experience in group planning activities is most desirable.

GIVING EXPLANATIONS

As mentioned in regard to the "telling" theory of teaching, there are many instances in secondary school classrooms of the need for teachers to explain, demonstrate, or tell. With the introduction of new periods or types of literature, new processes in mathematics, or new skills in the shop, gymnasium, or laboratory, group discussion or planning is futile for pupils have little basis on which to discuss or plan. In these situations the teacher's role is to explain the new material, show how to do the new steps in mathematics, demonstrate the use of the new equipment, or simply tell pupils what they need to know in undertaking the new experiences. In most secondary school classrooms such presentations by the teacher should be brief, concise, and accompanied wherever possible by illustrations, questions, and other means of holding pupil interest.

OTHER TOTAL GROUP ACTIVITIES

In addition to the major types of group activities described above, there are various related ones requiring similar skills on the teacher's part. At least the following activities of the teacher in directing the total group should be mentioned:

1. Giving directions for the preparation of some assignment which is the next step in a unit—another instance of giving explanations
2. Guiding a class evaluation of some learning experience, perhaps of an entire unit—a form of planning and/or summarizing
3. Directing class review and questioning of pertinent facts reported by one or more pupils from special studies
4. Developing through group discussion a set of standards for evaluating pupils' performance or products
5. Reviewing tests or other pupil performance to point out strengths and weaknesses

Guiding Small Groups in the Classroom

The use of small groups in most secondary school classrooms has been only recently attempted, if at all. It may be that the teacher's best chance of observing this practice in his community is in an elementary school, for in general there has been much more flexibility in the organization of elementary school classes. However, small groups have long been used in the secondary classes in which certain equipment is best used by groups smaller than the total class: homemaking, industrial

arts, physical education, music, art, science laboratories. Many modern secondary school teachers of nonlaboratory subjects, such as English, foreign languages, social studies, and mathematics, now recognize that the techniques of the elementary school and the laboratory are equally useful in their classrooms. The three major types of small groups utilized in the secondary school classrooms are briefly described below.

CLASS BUSINESS

The teacher occasionally needs to work with the committees in classes that are organized with officers and committees as suggested earlier in this chapter. These are the committees that do special jobs for the class, such as arranging physical facilities, greeting new members and guests, keeping the bulletin board, handling the classroom library, planning with other classes, or collecting fees. In larger high schools most of these functions are handled through the homeroom organization but there may need to be at least a rotating committee membership on classroom arrangements to keep this job from being neglected or imposed on a few.

SKILLS GROUPS

The use of small groups for practice in skill development stems from the teaching of reading in the elementary school. Typically, the elementary class is divided into three or four reading groups according to their reading level, and each group reads material at its level. This practice is also followed in arithmetic and sometimes other subjects in the elementary school involving skills. Moreover, it has long been utilized in physical education, industrial arts, homemaking, and other high school areas in which teachers have recognized, and adapted for, the marked differences in pupils' abilities to perform the skills and use the equipment concerned.

With the high school population so universal and with the varying levels of ability in the "academic" areas fully recognized, many teachers are providing for groups within the classroom to work at different levels. Thus, the English teacher may have groups reading different literary pieces or anthologies; the mathematics teacher, groups at work on different types of problems; the language teacher, on different sections of grammar or on different readings; and so forth. Basic in this type of work is the ability of the teacher, first, to organize instruction in skills at different levels of difficulty, and, second, to work with groups organized by these levels, singly and effectively. Unless the teacher has this ability, work in skills may become "busy work." It is also important

in this type of work for the teacher to understand how to use the groups for some but not all of the instructional program; otherwise, the values of total group activity may be lost.

INTEREST GROUPS

Probably the most extensive use being made of small groups is in connection with the exploration of specific interests that are related to, or are aspects of, some broad problem, topic, or other organizing center. The procedure here may be illustrated by the description of a unit on electricity. One committee is to investigate the uses of electricity in the home; another, in transportation; another, in communication; and so forth. After the topics have been agreed upon, the teacher gives pupils a chance to select their committee. In a class of thirty pupils, probably five or six committees are designated, the teacher seeing that the number of pupils on each is approximately the same. The teacher suggests sources that each committee should investigate for its information, and also indicates the types of question on which information is to be sought. Two or three class periods may be used during which the committees secure and compile their information. The teacher and class also draw up some suggestions as to how each committee is to present its findings to the class; probably two or three periods are used for this reporting. Following the reports a class summary of important uses of electricity is prepared, and some time is spent in evaluating the entire study.

Similarly, committees may be used for investigating and reporting in nearly every subject field. Committees may be used in history, for example, to study different phases of life in particular historical periods: government and politics, industrial development, education, recreation, and so forth. In literature, committees may be organized around groups of authors or individual authors; in foreign languages, around phases of the culture of the people whose language is being studied; in general mathematics, around different situations using some mathematic process such as percentage. In the laboratory subjects, committees may work on different parts of a meal in homemaking, for example, or various chemical elements in science, crops in agriculture, and so on. In the effective use of such small groups the steps shown in the accompanying chart should always be followed.

Helping Individual Pupils

Although learning is an individualized process, the usual reference to "teaching classes" is sometimes more than a convenience of statement.

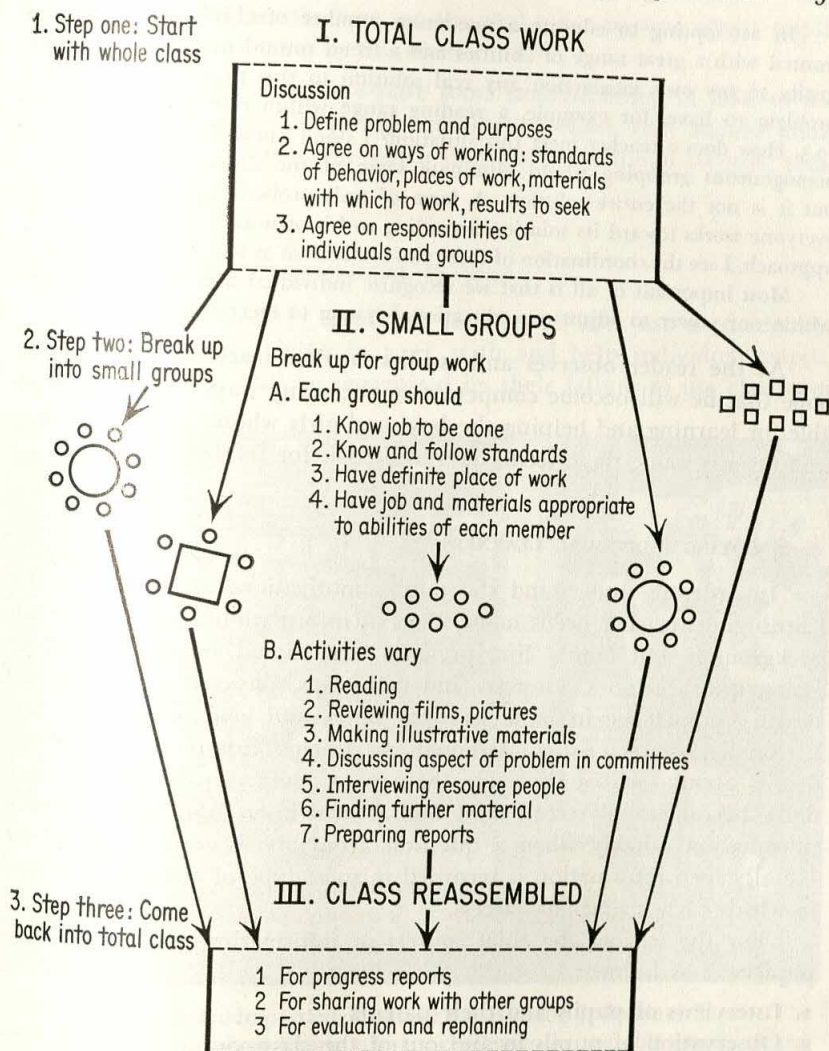


Figure 17. Use of Small Groups.

That is, the size of classes, their movement from teacher to teacher every period, and the emphasis on subject matter in secondary schools sometimes cause teachers to slight, if not ignore, the individuals in their classes. The group organization our schools use for instructional purposes is an economy and a convenience, but it does make possible a very real neglect of individual pupils.

Following his ten-week initiation into teaching, an intern whom one of us supervised made this comment in his final evaluation:

In attempting to educate a maximum number of children, we are confronted with a great range of abilities and a trend toward mediocrity. I cannot justify to my own satisfaction any real solution to this problem—and it is a problem to have, for example, a reading range within one class from 4.0 to 10.5. How does a teacher meet this situation? I don't know the answer. A more homogeneous grouping would eliminate some of the differences in abilities, but it is not the entire solution. A form of unit problem approach in which everyone works toward its solution according to his own abilities is still another approach. I see the coordination of these two methods as at least a partial solution.

Most important of all is that we recognize individual differences and do all within our power to adjust our educational system to meet them.

As the reader observes and studies further teaching activities, we hope that he will become competent in the many ways which are available for learning and helping the boys and girls whom he teaches. Here we can only name these techniques as a basis for further study.

STUDYING INDIVIDUAL LEARNERS

In order to understand the pupil's motivations and capacities for learning, his teacher needs many items of information about him: home backgrounds and family life, previous educational experience, intelligence, and aptitudes, interests and ambitions, physical and emotional health, competence in basic learning skills, and general behavior and personality characteristics. Although no teacher can remember all the details about each of these for the 150 or more pupils he may teach daily, he can usually recall some and at least know how to find needed information quickly when a question arises about a particular pupil. Usually such information is recorded in some type of cumulative record to which each teacher has access.

For the teacher the chief sources of information about individual pupils are as follows:

1. Interviews of pupils and their parents
2. Observation of pupils in and out of the classroom
3. Examination of pupils' work
4. Inventories (questionnaires) completed by pupils as to such items as interests, work habits, out-of-school activities
5. Pupils' performance on various types of tests: standardized achievement, intelligence, and aptitude; the teacher's own tests
6. Records: the pupil's own diaries, notebooks, and so forth; school records; the teacher's records
7. Reports by guidance workers, psychologists, nurses, and other specialists

8. Statements by other teachers, pupils, and other persons about pupils who are being studied by the teacher

Prospective teachers should acquire some understanding of how to use all these sources of information; equally important, they should know how to interpret information which they receive through records, tests, and similar sources.

PROVIDING FOR THE INDIVIDUAL LEARNER

Anyone who observes secondary teachers at work can soon identify those who are really trying to work with and help individual pupils. Those who are not will be recognized by their failure to use classroom



The Library Is an Important Resource for Helping Individual Pupils. The well-stocked and organized library offers a challenge for the able pupil, special materials for the slow reader, and information for all. (Courtesy of the New York City Schools.)

procedures other than total group activities and, especially, by their disregard of the questions, difficulties, boredom, tension, indifference, and other earmarks of individuals who are not being taught properly. In other classrooms, and their number is greater, we believe, many types of provisions for individual differences exist. These will probably include the following:

1. Careful diagnostic testing or observation of individual pupils to determine their needs for help
2. Use of special-help conferences during and after class meetings to give pupils various types of help:
 - a. To talk with the pupil about his learning problems and outline procedures which may help him
 - b. To suggest activities, projects, investigations, and other individual undertakings which may be more profitable to the learner than those which he has selected on his own
 - c. To discuss learning experiences which the pupil has missed for illness or other reasons, and plan how he may undertake these or related experiences on his own
 - e. To answer questions the pupil has raised in class, or questions that he asks the teacher to answer in conference
 - f. To give specific direction to study procedures, and observe the pupil in use of these procedures
 - g. To lend a sympathetic ear to the pupil's problems, and give him the security that comes from confidence in one's teacher
 - h. To go over specific pieces of work and test papers to help the pupil understand his difficulties
 - i. To review the pupil's self-evaluation of his learning experiences, and plan next steps in the light of such evaluation
 - j. To outline a procedure for studying a problem of interest to the pupil but beyond the interests and abilities of other class members
 - k. To plan learning experiences which will be related to the pupil's unique vocational interests or present work activities
 - l. To help the pupil plan for special roles he has in the class or school organization
3. Care in assigning drill work so that those who can profit from drill will be helped and so that others are not given useless "busy work"
4. Guidance of supervised study periods so that each individual needing help receives it
5. Assignment of homework on an individualized basis where possible so that each pupil has work to do that will be helpful and challenging
6. Use of special, individual investigations and projects to challenge the gifted pupils
7. Use of pupils in various class roles, such as chairman, class secretary, or messenger, in such a way as to develop individual security and competence
8. Careful use of whatever special services (see Chapter 17) the school provides, in order to help pupils needing them
9. Assistance to pupils in selecting courses and activities, and adjustment of their program so as to meet their individual needs

10. Efficient selection and distribution of books and other materials to provide for differences in learning abilities and interests

Evaluating Learning and Teaching

Evaluation (determining the value of something) in relation to directing learning experiences in the classroom has three principal phases. First, and usually receiving most attention, is the evaluation of pupils' learning, that is, their achievement of learning in comparison with whatever values or goals have been set. Second, effective teachers also carry on evaluation of the learning experiences that have been used. Third, teachers' own actions may be evaluated, although they seldom are in any comprehensive way. The following paragraphs call attention to some of the practices one may observe in each of these areas of classroom evaluation.

EVALUATION OF PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

The typical method of evaluation with regard to pupil achievement is the written test. Tests, both those made by the teacher and those which have been standardized (that is, standards or norms of expected achievement have been established), do have very great uses in evaluation. Preparation for teaching should include considerable experience in the preparation and interpretation of tests, perhaps even a course in tests and measurements. It should also include good experience in some of the other means of evaluation:

1. Pupils' self-evaluation through use of progress charts and check lists, and records such as diaries, logs, time schedules, and plans and results
2. Successive interviews, inventories, tests, and observations to determine progress
3. Examination of pupils' performance in skills of the laboratory, gymnasium, and similar specialized classroom learning centers
4. Critical analysis of successive pieces of written work
5. Committee evaluations of the contributions and achievement of individual learners
6. Parent evaluation of pupil progress
7. In work-experience programs, employer evaluation of pupils' work

EVALUATING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Although the ultimate criterion of any learning experience should be the learnings which result, teachers frequently are uncertain how to determine these learnings, or may want an immediate reaction to a particular experience. Tests and most of the other evaluative techniques

listed above may give partial evidence as to learning results, but frequently these results cannot be directly attributed to a particular discussion, book, film, or other resource. Consequently, teachers often directly seek pupil reactions to the discussion, book, or film. These evaluations may be in the form of group discussion or individual statements, oral or written. Such a form as that shown in Figure 18 is frequently

FORM FOR EVALUATING CLASS SESSIONS

What did you think of the class today? Please write your honest opinions to help us in the future.

1. How did you feel about the class today? (*Check one*)

0. No Good _____ 1. Poor _____ 2. All right _____

3. Good _____ 4. Fine _____

2. What were the worst points?

3. What were the best points?

4. What changes would you suggest to make our future class sessions better?

Figure 18. Form for Evaluating Class Sessions.

used to evaluate class sessions. Similar forms are designed and used by some teachers to get pupil reactions to such special experiences as hearing a speaker, seeing a film, taking a field trip, and so forth. Perhaps the reader's college or university instructor uses such evaluative forms in teacher-education classes to give experience with them.

EVALUATING TEACHER ACTIONS

Although the ultimate basis for evaluating teaching should also be the results attained in pupils' learning, it is very difficult to be certain that a pupil's stock of knowledge and skills and attitudes at any one time is due to one teacher rather than to another, or even always to be positive whether the credit for learning goes to the pupil, to his parents, to his friends, or to the teacher! Hence most plans for evaluating teaching usually attempt to appraise teaching actions rather than their results in pupils' performance. The whole field of teacher evaluation is

a complex and controversial one; the most we can do here is to express a point of view which we hope readers will explore further.

We firmly believe that teachers should be evaluated if both the teachers themselves and the teaching profession are to improve. Basic in any plan of teacher improvement is some determination of strengths and weaknesses. The best pattern of teacher evaluation is yet to be determined. We ourselves are fairly sure that brief observation of a teacher at work by a supervisor with rating scale in hand is *not* the best way, or even an acceptable way. In general, we believe that pupil evaluations of their teacher, evaluations by colleagues, and various self-evaluation techniques are the most usable for the teacher wishing to improve. An illustrative self-evaluation check list is shown in Table 41.

TABLE 41

*A Teacher's Self-Evaluation Check List:
Are the Signs of Effective Teaching Evident in My Classroom?*

SIGNS TO LOOK FOR	EVIDENT IN MY CLASSROOM		
	NOT AT ALL	NOT ENOUGH	JUST RIGHT
1. The goals for the year, each unit, and each class meeting are clearly understood by pupils.			
2. There is a definite plan for each class session.			
3. Definite "rules of the game" are clearly understood and adhered to.			
4. Pupils share in responsibility for the planning, procedures, and physical arrangement of the classroom.			
5. Displays reflect, and aid in, the on-going work of the class.			
6. Informal, friendly, efficient working conditions prevail.			
7. Various effective procedures and types of organization are used.			
8. Worth-while accomplishments of pupils are recognized.			
9. Pupil self-evaluation techniques are emphasized.			
10. An adequate record of every pupil's work is maintained.			
11. Each class session is closed by a summary of what has been accomplished and what is planned for the next session.			

TABLE 41 (continued)

*A Teacher's Self-Evaluation Check List:
Are the Signs of Effective Teaching Evident in My Classroom?*

SIGNS TO LOOK FOR	EVIDENT IN MY CLASSROOM		
	NOT AT ALL	NOT ENOUGH	JUST RIGHT
12. Pupils needing special help are given as much help as time can permit.			
13. Homework assignments are individualized so far as possible and are reasonable in length.			
14. Pupils understand clearly the procedures they should follow in each learning experience.			
15. Each pupil knows approximately how his achievement compares with his expected progress and with that of the class as a whole.			
16. Each pupil feels that the teacher is genuinely interested in him.			
17. Written and other products of pupils' work are carefully reviewed by the teacher with an opportunity for poorly prepared work to be corrected.			
18. The teacher is well prepared and exhibits enthusiasm for the class.			

Preparation for Classroom Teaching

Throughout, this chapter has called attention to competencies which the teacher needs to acquire. In fact, the purpose of the chapter is to identify the teacher's tasks in directing classroom learning experiences so that the prospective teacher and reader may go on to learn how to do these tasks. In closing, the chapter describes briefly the most promising means of such further study.

COURSES IN TEACHING METHODS

Probably many of the readers of this book will later take courses in methods of teaching in high school, general methods, student teaching or internship, or similar courses. Such courses are universally offered in teacher-education institutions and may contribute a great deal to teachers' learning. They frequently include such experiences as study

of a textbook on methods, readings about the theory and practice of teaching in supplementary sources, observation of teaching practices, viewing of films and other visual aids showing teaching practice, participation in sociodramas dealing with methods of teaching, and, during student teaching, actual teaching.

OBSERVATION OF TEACHING

There is no adequate substitute for a definite program of observation of various high school classes as a part of the study of teaching. If the observation is to be worth-while, there should be some definite plan that includes specifics to be looked for and a chance to discuss what was observed. A check list may be prepared from this chapter for this purpose, or at least for use as a guide in discussing what was observed. The check list in Table 41 may be helpful.

Although college classes (and high school classes, too) may not demonstrate the best teaching method, teachers in training should realize that every class of which they are members is an opportunity to observe the teacher-learning process in action. Systematic evaluations of the classes in which they are enrolled may sharpen their understandings of teaching method, and are frequently encouraged in teacher-education classes. Similarly, retrospection and discussion about classes in high school which the reader once attended may be helpful.

USE OF DESCRIPTIONS OF TEACHING PRACTICE

A variety of published, filmed, and recorded descriptions of classroom practices may be effectively used by teachers to get help in their acquisition of good techniques of teaching. Many of the books cited at the end of this chapter include descriptions of actual practice. Such professional journals as *NEA Journal*, *Educational Leadership*, *School Review*, and *Clearing House* carry many articles of general interest dealing with descriptions of classroom practice. Each of the major subject areas is represented nationally by an organization whose journal includes articles describing practices in its field.

A number of significant audiovisual aids for teacher education are now available. Use of these materials in teacher-education classes or in-service study groups, faculty meetings, or workshops may be an effective means for teachers to learn about the practices of others.

LEARNING HOW TO TEACH BY TEACHING

The theory of "learning by doing" is as applicable to teaching method as it is to any other field of learning. However, it is not to be

loosely interpreted in teaching method any more than elsewhere. The teacher who teaches the same way day in and day out is not learning how to teach better any more than the pupil who repeatedly makes the same errors in his written work is learning to write better. Evaluation and experimentation must be continuous parts of the process of learning how to teach.

The beginning teacher, including the student teacher or intern, can learn a great deal about how to teach from his own experience. In fact, there is no better source of technique, *provided* the beginner goes at his job with an inquiring mind and with a disposition to find fault with his own work and to correct it.

For Further Study

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Describes the characteristics and performance of *good* teachers.

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This text on methods of high school teaching details the teacher's responsibilities in guiding the problem-solving processes of adolescents.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Learning and the Teacher*. 1959 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1959.

Implications of learning theory for good teaching practices.

Bard, Harry. *Homework: A Guide for Secondary School Teachers*. Rinehart Education Pamphlets. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1958.

Useful suggestions for practical homework assignments in the various high school subjects.

Board of Education of the City of New York, Bureau of Curriculum Research. *The Unit in Curriculum Development and Instruction*. New York: The Board, 1956.

Helpful, concise explanation of how the teaching unit is planned and developed, with an excellent bibliography of various types of related materials.

Bossing, Nelson L., *Teaching in Secondary Schools*. 3d ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952.

A standard text on general methods of teaching in high school.

Briggs, Thomas H. "The Practices of Best High School Teachers," *School Review*, 43:746-775 (December, 1935).

Today's preservice teachers will be interested to note that the best practices Briggs wrote about in 1935 are still being sought.

Burton, W. H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. 2d ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.

Comprehensive treatment of general methodology of teaching.

Cantor, Nathaniel. *Dynamics of Learning*. 3d ed. Buffalo: Henry Stewart, Inc., 1956.

Significant statement of a philosophy of teaching based on Cantor's conception of genuine education as "self-criticism, self-discipline, self-motivation, and a willingness to be responsible for one's own decisions."

Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. Rev. ed. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1954.

Comprehensive treatment of the theory and practice of audio-visual methods. Gives specific applications of methods in varied situations.

Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association. *Television in Instruction: An Appraisal*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958.

Conclusions of an NEA-sponsored seminar on the role of television in instruction.

Grambs, Jean D., William J. Iverson, and Franklin K. Patterson. *Modern Methods in Secondary Education*. Rev. ed. New York: The Dryden Press, 1958.

A substantial and inclusive text on general methods of teaching.

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16

Guiding Extraclass Learning Experiences

The traditional distinction between curricular and extracurricular activities was based rather largely on the point of view that the curriculum consisted only of the traditional subjects. Anything done at school unrelated to these subjects was extracurricular. But educators in general now refer to the curriculum as the total program of the school. In terms of this broader concept of the curriculum there really are no extracurricular activities provided by the school. However, the schools offer many educational experiences only indirectly related to the subjects taught in the classroom, experiences for which graduation credit is usually not given. Many of the activities which were first introduced on a noncredit basis, such as journalism, debate, dramatics, and band, are now carried on as credit classes. Also, many classroom learning experiences are supplemented by related experiences outside the classroom.

Although, it is misleading, we think, to distinguish between curricular and extracurricular learning experiences, it is possible and desirable to distinguish between those learning experiences which are carried on as aspects of scheduled credit classes and those which are not. Whether or not graduation credit is involved in the extraclass activities, teachers must be concerned with directing both. Chapter 15 dealt with the teacher's task in guiding classroom learning experiences; this chapter will deal with the extraclass program, and particularly with its relationship to the teacher and his duties.

What Are the Values of These Activities?

We shall comment at various points in this chapter on the three major types of values which may be reached through the activities de-

scribed: (1) contribution to the total school program; (2) development of special interests; and (3) provision of practice in democratic processes. Each of these values will be discussed below in this section.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE TOTAL SCHOOL PROGRAM

The most common method of improving the curriculum has been to add new subjects and activities. The history of the extracurricular movement shows that each expansion of extraclass activities has been in response to some need for modifying or enriching the curriculum. Furthermore, once the activities achieve some success, they begin to affect the total school program. Teachers begin to modify classroom instruction to include some of the principles and procedures found effective outside the classroom. Many of the activities achieve a credit status; thus, music, dramatics, debate, journalism, and many other areas now in the program of studies were once extracurricular. Popular and beneficial activities are also placed in existing classes or activity periods to provide for wider participation.

Even with all this movement from extraclass to class, the extraclass program constantly flourishes; hence there must be values inherent in the "extra" pattern itself. These values, we believe, lie in boys' and girls' keen desire to operate activities themselves to an extent usually not true of the classroom. In schools where a high degree of cooperative planning comes to exist in classroom activities, there will perhaps be less interest in clubs. Certainly most extraclass activities better demonstrate certain principles of good education than do some classroom activities. For example, in good education,

learning activities are based, at least in part, on the interests of learners; group planning is used in organizing learning activities; varied procedures and resources are employed; and community interests and occupations are emphasized.

As extraclass activities introduce and popularize these principles, the total school program may be improved.

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL INTERESTS

The extraclass activity movement was originally motivated by students' interests that were not being served in classroom instruction, and they still provide more widely for student interests than do usual subject classes. Special interests in regard to occupations may be promoted through several features of the extraclass program. Work projects in school and community should be selected in part on the basis of youth interests. Many types of extraclass activities have direct relationships

to adult occupations and may be organized by students because of occupational interests: publications; music; and clubs, such as photography, radio, aviation, agriculture, homemaking, and business education. Assembly programs are used effectively for occupational guidance with the aid of specialists and films presenting various occupations. The particular offices or assignments that students take within their club organization may also have prevocational significance: business manager, treasurer, solicitor, salesman, secretary, clerk, promotion or publicity chairman, and so forth.

The choices that students make regarding voluntary health and physical activities may also be determined by special interests, provided that there is a sufficient variety of games and sports to conform to varying capacities. Similarly, boys and girls may find opportunities suited to their aesthetic interests in the student organizations relating to art, music, nature study, and literature, although these areas are increasingly a common concern of classroom instruction. All these and other leisure-time interests have consistently dominated the extraclass program, although the traditional school does not provide the time for all students to enjoy leisure within the school. Longer school days, activity periods, and expanded recreational facilities, however, give a steadily increasing



Music Provides a Leisure Time Interest for Many Youth. These boys and girls are taking time out from work to enjoy popular songs. (Courtesy of the Southwest Miami High School, Miami, Florida.)

number of boys and girls the opportunity to develop wholesome and persistent leisure interests in school.

PRACTICE IN DEMOCRATIC PROCESSES

The value most commonly claimed for extraclass activities is the opportunity they present for the practice of democratic processes. Although this may be considered by some a sad commentary on classroom instruction, it is undoubtedly true that the activities have characteristically been more democratically organized than classroom activities. In fact, they have at times been motivated by the students' desire to have some school program of their own to offset the teacher-dominated classroom.

Practices such as these in extraclass activities seem wholly consistent with the need of students for experience in democratic procedures:

1. Election of officers by the group
2. Election or appointment of committees responsible to the group
3. Review of qualifications of candidates for office
4. Adoption of and adherence to constitutions and bylaws, subject to revision by the group
5. Responsibility of designated representatives to the group represented
6. Use of publications and other means of communication in order to present differing points of view

Cooperative action requires use of the scientific method of thought and procedure and of effective communication skills. Students who are not given by teachers and principals ready-made solutions to their problems have to collect information and reach studied conclusions. Clubs and other organizations operated by and for students give particularly good opportunities for developing habits of clear expression, since in them boys and girls must learn to direct their remarks to a group rather than to only one person, as in a recitation. They must also learn to listen to reports, announcements, and assignments if they are to be effective members of the group. These discussions, carefully guided by student chairmen to secure wide participation without monopoly by a few members, are excellent situations for practice in showing respect to other persons for their opinions, statements, and contributions.

What Extraclass Activities Are Available?

In the references cited at the end of this chapter readers will find detailed treatment of the various extraclass activities. For the present purpose of introducing the prospective teacher to the extraclass program and the duties he may have to assume in it, the major types of activities

commonly available in secondary schools will be briefly described with particular reference to such items as purpose, nature, status in the schools, teachers' responsibilities, and relationship to classroom instruction. The fact can hardly be overemphasized that the extraclass activity program is a large-scale operation in the American high school and involves duties on the part of all teachers. Even in 1950, a United States Office of Education report estimated the existence of 194,512 separate activity groups, nearly 200,000 teacher-sponsors, and 3,890,240 pupil-members.¹

ASSEMBLIES

The school assembly is one of the oldest and perhaps the most common of all extraclassroom activities. It is the one experience that all pupils in some secondary schools have together. Crowded facilities, lack of an auditorium, or lack of one large enough to house the entire student body restricts assemblies in some schools; however, in most schools an assembly for all students about once a week is the usual practice.

Miller, Moyer, and Patrick describe three stages in the development of the philosophy and practice of the school assembly: (1) religious assembly, or "chapel"; (2) the assembly for announcements, entertainment, and other purposes, without student participation; and (3) the student-planned and -presented assembly.² Although assemblies of the first and, especially, the second type are still frequent, student participation is a central emphasis in current practice. The educational purpose of modern school assembly programs is illustrated by the following statement of aims from the *Assembly Guide for Secondary Schools* of the New York City Schools:

1. Education
 - a. To reveal new vocational and educational interests
 - b. To present classroom activities
 - c. To involve maximum pupil- and minimum teacher-participation
 - d. To widen and deepen the interests of the students
 - e. To develop creative abilities
 - f. To cultivate good manners and good taste
2. Citizenship and Character
 - a. To cultivate school spirit
 - b. To train high-minded, capable leaders

¹ Ellsworth Tompkins, *Extraclass Activities for All Pupils* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1950, No. 4; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1950), p. 24.

² Franklin A. Miller, James H. Moyer, and Robert B. Patrick, *Planning Student Activities* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), pp. 496-497.

- c. To train for democratic citizenship
 - d. To establish high ideals for the school
 - e. To train the student to adapt himself to the needs of the community
 - f. To contribute toward the solution of a school problem
 - g. To inculcate ethical ideals
 - h. To bring to the school the resources of the community
3. Communication
- a. To provide an opportunity for each pupil to share with the school his choicest experiences
 - b. To provide an opportunity for growth and ease in expression
 - c. To serve as an example of the best voice and speech as used by students and adults ³

Teachers may have several responsibilities in connection with the assembly programs. Usually one or more teachers serve on an assembly planning committee responsible for planning, scheduling, and coordinating the programs. Frequently students serve on these committees, too. In some secondary schools one faculty member may be designated as assembly coordinator; in New York City the qualifications of this person are described as follows:

The coordinator of assemblies should have the following qualifications: resourcefulness, since he will often have to work with make-shift equipment; ability to get others to work with him since he cannot, single-handed, stage all the assembly programs; a feeling for (if not experience or training in) dramatic production; a knowledge of what his audience will benefit from, be interested in, and enjoy; originality and initiative.⁴

Teachers are also frequently responsible for maintaining order in the assembly room both before, during, and after the programs. Sometimes they sit with their class or homeroom group. In some schools each teacher may be responsible for a periodic assembly presentation of a class, club, or homeroom group he sponsors. Or the assembly planning committee may select classes, clubs, or homerooms whose activities especially merit recognition, and ask the teachers concerned to be responsible for their programs. All teachers have the opportunity to relate the programs presented in assemblies to classroom instruction as appropriate. For example, programs dealing with current problems and happenings in the community and the world may be of interest to classes in various departments. In addition to those presented by classes or departments, clubs, and homerooms, typical assembly programs include the following:

³ Board of Education of the City of New York, *Assembly Guide for Secondary Schools* (Curriculum Bulletin, 1954-1955 Series, No. 11; New York: The Board, 1956), pp. 5-6.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 6. This pamphlet also lists in detail duties of the coordinator.

- Special days and weeks
- Student forums
- Musical programs
- Honors and awards
- Installation of student officers
- Pep or rally meetings
- Vocational guidance programs
- College day programs
- Opening and closing of term business
- Dramatic presentations
- Holiday celebrations
- Student government campaigns

ATHLETICS

Probably the most common as well as the most widely criticized extraclass school activities are those included in interscholastic athletics. Almost every high school has its teams in football, basketball, and baseball, and sometimes other sports, that compete with teams elsewhere, frequently on some league or tournament basis. Highly competitive and commercial influences may be controlled to some extent by regulations of the usual state or regional athletic association, but interscholastic athletics are still subject to criticism because too much emphasis is said to be placed on this one phase of school activity, with various malpractices resulting. Although they are most frequently provided at the senior high, some junior high schools also sponsor interscholastic competitions. In view of the physical immaturity and growth needs of early adolescents, most authorities question competitive athletics at this level.

Many schools have experimented with various procedures for extending the desirable benefits of athletics and minimizing the competitive and commercial aspects. Most of the methods employed are aimed toward encouraging participation by more high school students. Thus intramural teams and competition are generally made a part of the physical education program; other sports, such as tennis, golf, swimming, and volleyball, are included, several teams being organized in each sport to assist the physical development of a maximum number of students rather than to provide entertainment for spectators.

These efforts to widen participation and diminish vicious competition have as yet affected too few communities. In many schools, athletics still exist for those most able physically; intramural sports are distinctly second to interscholastic activities in interest and support; teachers feel that coaches are paid salaries out of proportion to those given other personnel; and the whole athletic program, except for eligibility rules

for players, is operated somewhat independently of the instructional program and purposes of the school.

The question of eligibility is a rather difficult one, philosophically. The common practice of requiring some achievement standard for those who participate in athletics provides this type of motivation for school-work, but it may eliminate from school students whose only interest and proficiency is in athletics and who are better off in school than out.

In small high schools, general classroom teachers may serve as coaches, and even in larger ones teachers may have "extracurricular" coaching duties. Typically, however, the physical education teachers and coaches, usually but not necessarily the same persons, handle all athletic matters except student activities at the games. Other teachers may assist in ticket sales, ushering, pep meetings, and the like. Frequently, their most onerous duties relative to athletics have to do with class absences and the standing of the athletes. Conscientious teachers become concerned about the academic difficulties many athletes have because of their preoccupation with practice and games, and they may give considerable time to providing extra help for these pupils. Interruptions of classes by special activities in connection with games as well as by absences of athletes, and perhaps other students, for out-of-town contests are irritating to many teachers. On the other hand, many teachers also believe that the instructional program is aided by the eligibility requirements, the high spirits of students before and perhaps after games, and the students' contacts through athletics with other schools and communities. Unquestionably, the athletic program provides great incentive to many youth, and contributes substantially to such objectives as the development of initiative, responsibility, and sportsmanship.

CAMPING

The development of school camps is a recent and significant innovation in public education. A 1954 survey of school camping was based on visits to forty school camps located in Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, California, Texas, South Carolina, and New York, as well as on questionnaires concerning additional camps in Maryland, New Jersey, and Washington.⁵ For curriculum purposes, most use has been made of these camps at the elementary school level. For example, the five programs (Battle Creek, Michigan; San Diego, California; Tyler, Texas;

⁵ See John W. Gilliland, *School Camping: A Frontier of Curriculum Improvement* (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1954).

New Castle, Indiana; and St. Louis) described in this survey in some detail were primarily for upper-grade (fifth- and sixth-grade) children. However, considerable use is made of the camps for older pupils but not as frequently for the week-long type of experience.

Educational experiences in school camps include social living, healthful living, recreation, work experience, and outdoor education related to curriculum areas. A Michigan bulletin on school camping lists almost one hundred camp experiences as related to the following curriculum areas: science, social studies, language, mathematics, shop, home-making, music, art, and dramatics.⁶

Four types of camping programs may be identified in the secondary schools having accessibility to school camps. First, occasional groups may be sent to camps for several days' experience during the school year. Second, groups may go to the camp for a single day's field trip, perhaps repeated several times during the school year. Third, the camp may be used for picnics and other social activities by clubs or other school groups. Fourth, summer camping programs may be provided for interested youth. It should also be noted that high school youth are frequently employed as assistants and counselors in camps for younger children. In all of these programs there are possibilities for the types of experiences cited, *provided* the teachers responsible are effective in planning and guiding them. As in any other type of out-of-school experience, it is essential for teacher and pupils to plan so that their experiences will relate to questions arising in the classrooms, and to review these experiences later in the same problem-solving relationships. The teacher-sponsor must be alert not only to the social and behavioral aspects of camping experience in process, but to the curriculum relationships of the outdoors and the classroom. Some previous experience at the camp prior to planning a camping trip is indispensable to the teacher.

CLUBS

The club and extraclass program are practically identical in many schools; that is, virtually all their extraclass activities are organized as clubs, each with a faculty sponsor. A functioning club program characteristically cuts across other organizational lines within the school and provides an opportunity for students to work or play together on the basis of common interests in some hobby or other activity. There is

⁶ Michigan Department of Public Instruction, "*Youth Love Thy Woods and Templed Hills*," (Lansing, Mich.: The Department, 1950), pp. 8-10. Also see the department's *A Community School Work-Learn Camp*, 1951.

adequate opportunity for students to propose and organize their own clubs and for the elimination of clubs that do not develop an interested membership. It follows that almost an infinite number of clubs may exist in the high schools of the United States. One large senior high school, for example, in 1958 had the following clubs:

Girls' Civic Clubs

Anchor

Beta

Co-Eds

Deb Juniors

Junior Girls

Lete

Omega

Tallet

Trilon

Boys' Civic Clubs

Crescent

Gentry

Key

"L"

Sigma

Wheel

XC

Honor Societies

Future Business Leaders of America

L'Allegro

Modern Music Masters

National Athletic Scholarship Society

National Forensic League

National Honor Society

Pen & Sable

Quill & Scroll

Science and Math Honorary

Spanish National Honor Society

Thespians

Interest Clubs

Allied Youth

Cavalier Riders

Cavalettes

Cheerleaders

Chemistry Club

Chess Club

French Club

Future Teachers of America

Girls' Athletic Association

Hi-Y

Junior Classical League

Junior Red Cross

Lettermen's

Library Club

Modern Dance

Radio Club

Sabers

Tip Top Club

Y-Teens ⁷

Sometimes functioning as clubs, too, are the special groups organized for intellectually more able and interested students. Especially during the late 1950's, as concern for the academically talented became wide-

⁷ From *Coral Gables Senior High School, Student's Handbook, 1956-58* (Coral Gables, Fla.: The School, 1956), pp. 40-50.

spread, some schools began to devise after-school and Saturday activities for selected youth. Thus in university communities groups of students especially interested in certain college subjects may meet on Saturday morning with university professors. In a suburban community some students may come together on evenings or weekends with scientists and other residents for special information about the work these people do in the city.

School clubs may be classified according to purpose as follows:

1. *Curriculum.* Many clubs are organized in relation to the course offerings of the school as a means of providing related social, recreational, and other activities that are considered fun rather than learning. For example, the Spanish Club may have programs of Spanish music and dancing.

2. *Service.* Usher clubs, pep clubs, library clubs, movie operators' clubs, and similar groups exist primarily to provide services for the school. The term "service club" may also identify a club organized as a junior affiliate of some adult service organization, as are many of the "civic clubs" listed in the preceding example.

3. *Social.* Although fraternities and sororities, secret societies, are generally outlawed in public secondary schools, social or service clubs may be sponsored which exhibit similar characteristics, especially that of an elected membership. The programs of these groups usually emphasize social activities.

4. *National youth affiliates.* Several types of clubs operate on a national basis as organizations generally concerned with character-building and vocational functions, such as Boy and Girl Scouts, Hi-Y, Junior Red Cross, 4-H, Allied Youth, Future Farmers, and Future Teachers. (See Table 39 for a more complete list.) Some such groups merely meet in school buildings, but others are directly sponsored by the school.

5. *Hobbies.* Radio, photography, and many other types of clubs are directly concerned with the development of leisure-time interests. Such clubs exist in great numbers; for example, it was estimated in 1956 that there were sixty-five hundred camera clubs in American high schools.⁸

6. *Honor societies.* Various types of local and national honor societies seek to develop and recognize scholarship. Probably the most widely known of these societies is the National Honor Society, sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

One of the major problems involved in the club programs is their time of meeting. If they meet after school, membership may be denied

⁸ Cited by Willis C. Brown, *Extraclass Activities in Aviation, Photography, and Radio* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1956, No. 11; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 18.

pupils who work or who ride the school bus. If they meet during an activity period in the school day, which is probably the case in two out of three public secondary schools,⁹ then it may be considered necessary for all or most pupils to participate in a club, and the interest factor is sacrificed. In the case of more or less compulsory membership, it is generally necessary for nearly all teachers to sponsor a club; hence sometimes teachers, too, must participate in a club they really would not choose.

Most high school teachers in preparation should assume, we believe, that their teaching duties will include the sponsorship of one or more clubs. Perhaps the best preparation for this duty is participation during high school and college in varied club activities. Is there some field of club activity in which the reader feels especially interested and competent? Are there other fields in which he has sufficient interest to become competent? Does he understand good procedures of organization and program planning in clubs? Is he able to convey his enthusiasms to others? Is he willing to devote the extra time and energy required to make a club successful? If the reader can answer these questions affirmatively, club sponsorship will be a pleasant duty for him. If he cannot, he should take up some club interests and pursue them vigorously before he begins teaching.

COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

Chapter 14 dealt rather fully with school-community activities. There curriculum experiences in the community were classified as follows:

- Firsthand study of the community
- School services to the community
- Community improvement projects
- Work experience in the community

An effective secondary school teacher guides his pupils in one or more of these types of experiences. This task, too, requires specific skills and preparation.

How is the teacher to acquire these skills? In the first place, pre-service education should include some participation in school-community activities. Many teacher-training institutions provide some kind of ex-

⁹ Ellsworth Tompkins, *The Activity Period in Public High Schools* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1951, No. 19; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951), p. 12. The activity period is defined herein as "a period during the school day set aside for pupil participation in all-school and extraclass activities."

perience in school-community study. If the reader has taken such courses, he may have had an opportunity to become acquainted with common community agencies and with certain techniques of community action. Otherwise he should seek out the various types of community organizations in order to study, visit, and even assist them:

Churches

Welfare agencies and institutions

Civic organizations

Service clubs

Women's societies

Community beautification organizations

Labor organizations

Business associations

Political groups

Youth organizations

Veterans' organizations

Recreational organizations

Cultural-interest groups

Secondly, most of the skills required in school-community activities—discussion leadership, group planning, and identification of purposes and outcomes—are the same as those required in any other group learning situations and should become a part of a teacher's professional equipment.

Finally, special knowledges will be required in every community. In some urban districts, the beginning teacher may be given an orientation program designed to acquaint him with community resources. He may be given an index of excursions or a list of speakers or other printed aids of these types. In any community the professionally minded teacher will identify himself as rapidly as possible with it by making tours, taking out membership in community groups, and studying local histories and directories, and the local press.

CONTESTS, FESTIVALS, AND TOURNAMENTS

A host of contests, festivals, carnivals, tournaments, and other activities involving competition and sometimes both fun and money-making, may be found in our secondary schools. Scholastic contests are sponsored by colleges and universities and their departments, as are contests in athletics, speech, debate, music, stock and grain judging, and other activities. Athletic associations widely promote various types of tournaments. Various associations in music, dramatics, debate, and speech sponsor contests of many sorts to exhibit the accomplishments of pupils and teachers. Commercial, patriotic, and civic groups are continuously

beseiging the schools to conduct essay and poster contests, campaigns, fairs, carnivals, and other programs to promote some interest, usually thoroughly worthy. The requests for these various types of events are so numerous in larger centers that many school systems have had to organize screening committees or other procedures to evaluate them.¹⁰ And in addition to the many proposals from outside the school, many parent and student organizations wish to use student talent to raise funds through various programs.

Some of these contests and affairs undoubtedly have merit. Boys and girls like to compete and entertain, and well-organized competition and entertainment can be wholesome and stimulating. For example, intercity music festivals and contests may provide band, orchestral, and vocal groups excellent opportunities to demonstrate their competence, and at the same time provide fine musical programs for youth and adults. If competition is involved, the awards can be made positive and helpful for each group. Properly conducted, contests and festivals may stimulate widespread participation and wholesome motivation of students. However, there are many dangers and difficulties that teachers should understand as they evaluate requests for these activities or even consider organizing them in order to promote their own extraclass responsibilities or interests.

One of the worrisome aspects of all these contests and programs is the inevitable interruption of classes, pupils' study time, and teachers' planning time. The entire school program may have to be curtailed or rescheduled. Special rehearsals, arrangement of facilities, and the like are time consuming for pupils and teachers alike. Teachers may have to serve as chaperons for groups going away from school for contests, and this presents problems for the teachers' other pupils. Competition among teachers as well as pupils is stimulated by these contests, and jealousies and frictions may develop. Successful pupils and teachers alike may be exploited by others. Many of these contests are expensive to the school as well as to the participants, and able pupils may be unable to take part in them because of costs. Although contests may develop sportsmanship, they may also engender dishonesty and the "anything-to-win" philosophy. All of these and other undesirable aspects of contests must be carefully weighed by the teacher who is deciding whether or not to sponsor a contest, festival, or tournament.

It should be made clear, however, that teachers frequently cannot decide whether they will sponsor a particular contest. They may be expected to do so, and have no choice but to participate as sponsors,

¹⁰ In fact, the National Association of Secondary School Principals considers this problem serious enough to issue an annual list of approved national (defined as offered in five or more states) contests and activities.

promoters, directors, chaperons, or judges, or in other capacities. In such situations, their best procedure is to try to secure all the advantages and avoid all the dangers cited above.

GRADUATION ACTIVITIES

Most of the graduation or commencement activities of secondary schools have been copied from colleges and universities. In similar fashion junior high schools in some communities follow the senior high school pattern, and even some elementary schools must have their ceremonies marking the end of the sixth or the eighth grade. However, the trend has for some time definitely been toward de-emphasizing the progression from the elementary and junior high school levels, where promotion or recognition exercises or assemblies are more common. But the completion of grade 12 is characteristically marked by many special events—senior trips, senior class day, senior dances and parties, “skip” or “sneak” days, in addition to the traditional baccalaureate service and commencement.

These various programs stress the importance of the completion of high school and recognize the achievements of the graduates. Although the programs certainly can be overemphasized, their elimination seems neither desirable nor likely. Teachers must expect that the school program will be affected by some of these activities each year and that they themselves will have many tasks connected with the graduating classes. Sponsors and chaperons will be needed for all of the special affairs, senior classes will be interrupted, and seniors will expect special help and other privileges. Baccalaureate services and graduation exercises must be planned, and some teachers will be involved in many phases of these plans. Although some one teacher designated as senior class sponsor or otherwise may carry most of the responsibility, the music teachers may be asked to care for the music, the art teachers the decorations, the homemaking teachers refreshments for the reception, and so forth. Thus graduation activities comprise still another important extraclass responsibility as well as an opportunity for secondary school teachers as they work toward a balanced and sound educational program for all adolescents.

HOMEROOM

The homeroom of the secondary school is a substitute for the elementary school relationship of the one teacher and his one class. With the typical shift that pupils make each period from one teacher to an-

other in secondary schools, some arrangement is needed whereby each pupil has one room that is his headquarters and one teacher who is his head teacher. The core teacher may serve in this capacity in those schools having a core curriculum plan. But most secondary schools—virtually all those at the senior high school level—are completely departmentalized, and the homeroom is the one substitute for the elementary school relationship of teacher and pupil. In some schools the homeroom relationship is maintained throughout the school years by continuation of a homeroom teacher with the same group of pupils each year.

Homerooms follow no standard pattern in American secondary schools. Most secondary schools assign each pupil to one room for such purposes as attendance records and report cards. The length, frequency, and nature of homeroom meetings vary widely. In some schools the homeroom may simply be the first-period classroom, and the homeroom functions be merely attendance taking, announcements, and distribution or collection of report cards, fees, and so forth. Or the first five to fifteen minutes of each day may be devoted to these and related activities but in some other organization, such as one arranged alphabetically by grades to distribute pupils equally among all teachers. Another pattern is the weekly or semiweekly homeroom period of thirty minutes or more. This pattern is typical of schools having a daily activity period, with one or perhaps two of these periods each week being used for the extended homeroom. In these situations the homeroom period may be used as a guidance period, for study, or perhaps for a combination of these purposes. In some schools the daily homeroom period may be as long as thirty minutes or even longer and be primarily a study period. The homeroom is also the basic unit of student representation in the student council or other form of student government. It may also have its own social program and extramural teams.

Secondary school teachers may expect, then, to have some type of homeroom responsibility. They may simply have to take attendance, make announcements, and distribute or collect materials, or they may have a real responsibility for the educational guidance of pupils. Each school has its own routines. The well-organized homeroom program with an adequate time allotment gives teachers a fine opportunity to help boys and girls in program making and other activities. Preparation for this extraclass responsibility should include a thorough knowledge of the school, its program and services, as well as of the methods of effectively studying individual pupils and of leading their planning and discussion activities. Actually, good preparation for effective classroom teaching is also preparation for effective homeroom leadership.

LIBRARY

Most pupil activities in the school library are directly related to the classroom activities. That is, boys and girls go to the library to get information about questions or topics under consideration in some class. Sometimes they may go as a class to receive library instruction. Or they may go in small groups to work in a conference room on a committee assignment. But teachers may also have functions in relation to the library somewhat different from this one of directing pupils to use library resources pertinent to classroom studies.

In the very small secondary school there may be no full-time librarian, and one or more teachers may have extra duties in regard to maintaining whatever library center the school has. Although accreditation standards generally require the services of trained librarians, smaller schools may have to depend on members of the regular teaching staff for the operation of their libraries. Even in those schools with trained librarians, teachers may be expected to give them occasional assistance.

In all secondary schools teachers can do much to help in the most effective use of the library by thorough cooperation with the librarians. Teachers should be well acquainted with library holdings and procedures. They may be expected to keep abreast of library accessions, at least in their own curriculum fields, and to call the attention of their students to significant materials as these become available. They should encourage leisure-time use of the library as well as specific information-seeking there. By and large, the use of a school library depends more on the promotion that classroom teachers do than on the routines the librarians administer. The librarian makes the library usable, and this is highly important, but it is the classroom teacher who encourages, persuades, and/or even coerces boys and girls to use it.

LUNCHROOM

Although secondary schools usually have separate lunchrooms or tables for teachers, the latter do have tasks in relation to the pupils' lunchroom. In addition to whatever minor tasks teachers may have with respect to selling lunchroom tickets, announcing lunchroom procedures, accompanying their classes to the lunchroom, and so forth, they may also be assigned lunchroom supervision by rotation or by some other system. Especially at the junior high school level all teachers may be expected to encourage proper practices in food selection and in lunchroom behavior and table etiquette.

PUBLIC PROGRAMS

Several of the activities described in this chapter may involve performances staged for or open to the general public: assemblies, athletic events, contests, festivals, tournaments, commencement, and social programs. In addition, several school activities, especially those in music and dramatics, quite regularly produce performances for the public. Especially in small communities not having the variety of commercial entertainment found in cities, the high school music concerts and dramatic presentations may be eagerly awaited community events. Furthermore, the band and other school groups are called upon very frequently, sometimes to the point of exploitation, to take part in parades, rallies, and other types of community activities.

Although the teachers directly responsible for the team, band, and other groups which put on the public performances have the heavier tasks, other teachers may share some of the duties. Ticket selling and collecting, ushering, chaperoning, serving as hosts and hostesses, and other responsibilities may be distributed among the faculty. All teachers, too, can use these occasions to build good community relations by greeting, meeting, and helping parents and others in the audience. When the school building is used for the performances, displays may be made to show something of the school's program. Perhaps a short play can be part of an evening's program in which parents meet their children's homeroom teachers. Every occasion on which parents come to school is an opportunity to promote parent-teacher, school-community relations.

PUBLICATIONS

High school publications in the United States constitute a major business enterprise. It has been estimated that there are some 30,000 high school newspapers, magazines, annuals, and other publications, produced by 15,000 high schools and involving 1,000,000 pupils and \$16,500,000 in annual expenditure.¹¹ The types of publications include the following:

1. The school newspaper, usually published at least once a month
2. The yearbook or annual, produced annually as a "memory book" for the year
3. The literary magazine, perhaps published two or three times a year in larger schools, to recognize creative writings of students

¹¹ This estimate by Walter E. Hess, managing editor, National Association of Secondary School Principals, is cited in Tompkins, *Extraclass Activities for All Pupils*, p. 24, fn. 8.

4. The student handbook, usually published not more than once a year as a guide for students to school policies and regulations
5. Various special publications, including student directories, programs of special events, reports of activity groups, and student council bulletins

These various publications may and do serve worth-while purposes in our secondary schools. A medium of communication is essential in any organization, and a school newspaper is the common medium of larger schools. Sometimes produced by an elected or volunteer staff and sometimes by the journalism class, the newspaper may be a strong factor in unifying school activities and interests. Through it information is presented regarding special problems, and polls are taken of student opinion. The newspaper and other school publications give boys and girls the opportunity to develop special interests in writing, editing, and other publishing operations. Annuals and magazines help in developing school morale and provide fine opportunity for creative effort on the part of students. Handbooks and directories are useful in orienting new students in larger schools.

Teachers have fairly substantial duties in regard to school publications. First of all, some teacher, usually of English, typically serves as sponsor or adviser of each publication, or perhaps of all publications. Unless the publication is produced through a journalism class, and perhaps if it is, the teacher may be given a nonteaching period for this work. Such sponsors need special training and experience in journalism. If the reader aspires to such an assignment, experience with high school and/or college publications will stand him in good stead.

In addition to the sponsor, other teachers may share the responsibility for publications in several ways. Each homeroom may be called upon to submit news or other material for the school paper. English and other teachers may be asked to be on the alert for essays, poems, and other writings to be published in the newspaper or magazine. Different departments, classes, or activity groups are frequently assigned responsibility for sections of the yearbook. Teachers may be called upon to write or edit copy. All teachers may need to help in the sale of publications or with other means of financing.

Financial aspects of school publications raise several issues. If students must pay for each publication separately or through a student activity or publications fee, this is another cost of "free" public education. If the publications are supported in part by advertising, students and/or teachers must solicit it. If funds are raised through public programs as described earlier in this chapter, someone, again students and/or teachers, must produce these programs. All these problems must be reconciled with the aims and results of the publications program. Un-

doubtedly there are fine values to the pupils involved and to the school as a whole. Teachers should see that these values are realized without excessive demands of money and time on the students and on themselves.

National and regional press associations give considerable leadership in the school publications field through establishing journalistic standards, making awards, and holding conventions. The National Scholastic Press Association, founded at the University of Wisconsin in 1921 and moved to the University of Minnesota in 1926, publishes the *Scholastic Editor* and holds annual meetings jointly with the National Association of Journalistic Directors. The Columbia Scholastic Press Association, founded at Columbia University in 1924, publishes *The School Press Review* and holds annual meetings jointly with the Columbia Scholastic Press Advisers' Association. Quill and Scroll, organized in 1926 at Drake University and moved later to Northwestern University, is the honorary society for high school journalists and publishes the magazine *Quill and Scroll*.

SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS (COOPERATIVELY SPONSORED)

The term "service organization" is sometimes used somewhat loosely to apply to any activity group that has service in the school or community as one of its functions. Another use of the term is in connection with organizations that are sponsored by some adult group and have service as one function. Among these organizations are many national ones, some of which are shown in Table 42.¹²

In addition, there are many high school groups affiliated with local organizations, some of which, such as Rotary, Kiwanis, and Lions, are also branches of national or international organizations. The teacher in a large metropolitan high school may find a first and rather considerable task that of understanding the complexity of student organizations, their affiliations, and their purposes. This is an important task to be accomplished if the teacher is to offer wise counsel to students as to what groups to join, and also if he is to use and help others to use the various services these organizations provide.

SOCIAL PROGRAMS

Parties, dances, and other social functions are usually outgrowths, and very prominent ones, of other school activities rather than belonging

¹² See Miller, Moyer, and Patrick, *op. cit.*, Chap. 20, for detailed description of the organizations shown in this table and also others, including the following organizations with prevocational purposes: Future Business Leaders of America, Future Farmers of America, Future Homemakers of America, 4-H Clubs, Future Scientists of America, and Future Teachers of America.

TABLE 42

Some Student Organizations with National Sponsorship

ORGANIZATION	NATIONAL SPONSOR AND HEADQUARTERS	MEMBERSHIP
Allied Youth	Allied Youth, Inc. Washington, D.C.	Youth 14 to 30, interested in alcohol education
Audubon Junior Club	National Audubon Society New York City	Boys and girls in junior high (and elementary)
Boy Scouts	Boy Scouts of America New York City	Boys who qualify, and are at least 8 years old (Cubs) or 11 (Scouts) or 14 (Explorers)
Cadet Air Patrol	Civil Air Patrol Washington, D.C.	Boys and girls who qualify, and are at least 15 years old (or in grade 10 or above)
Girl Reserve	Young Women's Christian Association New York City	Girls, 12 to 18
Girl Scouts	Girl Scouts of America New York City	Girls who qualify, and are at least 7 years old (Brownies), or 10 (Intermediate Scouts), or 14 (Senior Scouts)
Hi-Y	Young Men's Christian Association New York City	Boys in high school
Junior Red Cross	American Red Cross Washington, D.C.	Boys and girls in school
Rifle Club	National Rifle Association Washington, D.C.	Boys and girls under 19
Science Club	Science Clubs of America Science Service Washington, D.C.	Local members, however determined, of science clubs
Thespians	National Thespian Society Cincinnati, Ohio	Boys and girls recommended as qualified in dramatic arts
Tri-Hi-Y	Young Men's Christian Association New York City	Girls in high school (to parallel Hi-Y, boys)

to a wholly separate category. Most of the activity groups already described in this chapter at one time or another sponsor some type of social activity. For example, the athletic teams have their banquets, the clubs their parties or dances and perhaps social periods at most meetings, the homerooms their parties or picnics, the publication staffs their celebrations. Adolescents generally like parties (especially the refreshments!) and dances, now that school instruction in dancing is frequent. The modern



School Subjects Frequently Produce Other School Activities. Here members of a foreign language class present a folk dance. (Courtesy of the Oklahoma City Schools.)

secondary school provides opportunities for cultivating these interests in a wholesome fashion. Although few schools provide a "social room," fitted for dancing, party, games, lounging, and similar activities, in the absence of such a room, the gymnasium or the cafeteria can readily be arranged and decorated for a variety of social affairs.

In addition to the parties, dinners, and dances held at school, various

after-school, off-campus events are widely organized by school groups; picnics, camping trips, roller skating, hay rides, theater parties, and hikes are common. All of these, in addition to the affairs held at school, present many interest builders for pupils—and also many problems for the high school faculty: costs, supervision and chaperonage, time, and sponsorship. The problem of costs is particularly acute with regard to the more elaborate banquets and dances, and frequently less economically privileged boys and girls have difficulty in participating. The simpler functions may be carried by funds of the responsible organization or by small assessments of participants. Sensible economy in refreshments and decorations is characteristic of the best social programs.

The high school teacher finds especially pressing his problem of the time and effort these activities involve. Out-of-school activities must be chaperoned and, even with the help of parents, teachers should and do feel this responsibility keenly. If they are sponsored by a school organization, and this helps to fix student responsibility, the teacher who is the organization's adviser must still work with the group in making effective and appropriate plans. Some adolescents seem to want to give too much of their time to social activities and their planning, and teachers have to preserve some balance in time allotments of homerooms and clubs for these and other purposes. Teachers must also deal with social committees, school calendars, and other organizational aspects of the social program. By and large, their functions are to work with high school youth in such a way as to develop the latter's initiative in providing a well-balanced, economical program of wholesome recreation. To do this, teachers need a good understanding of adolescents and a wide acquaintance with social and recreational activities plus the ability to say "No" when a "No" is necessary to ensure appropriateness, economy, and wide participation.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

Great variation is found in the nation's high schools with regard to participation in school government. Some student bodies are organized as student associations, with constitutions setting forth their responsibilities, limitations, and so forth. As a part of this organization or perhaps as the one approach to student government, there may be a student council or a student judiciary or a student executive committee. In some schools the student council may be virtually just another club with very limited duties, whereas in others the student council may be a highly significant body in the total school organization.

Some illustrative plans are cited below to show some of the practices which exist. One thing is clear and, we think, very important: secondary schools are generally trying to give students some practice in

democratic action through participation in school government. Studies made by the National Association of Secondary School Principals indicate that about 80 per cent of secondary schools, and an even larger percentage of schools in the cities, have some type of student council organization. In fact, this association's Executive Committee approved on September 30, 1955, a statement regarding student councils that included these points:

We believe that in every secondary-school there should be an organization through which elected student representatives may have the opportunity to participate in some phase of school administration, especially in the extraclass, or student activity, program. This school organization is generally known as the student council. . . .

We believe that much of the success of the student council is due, in great measure, to the interest, enthusiasm, and understanding of the high-school principal; no principal can expect his student council to be an effective educational force in his school unless he has first professed and demonstrated his faith in its capabilities and potentialities. . . .

We believe that school student councils and State Associations of Student Councils need and deserve support from the administrators of the nation's secondary schools individually and through their professional organizations.

THEREFORE, we urge all secondary-school principals to give their assistance to the promotion of student participation through the student council organization and to take an active part in the effective work in which the student council is now engaged.¹³

Illustrative of a constitution for a total student body association is that of the Sarasota (Florida) Junior High School Student Body. The first four articles of this constitution, which provides for a "Student Congress" corresponding to the student council typical of many schools, follow:

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE SARASOTA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT BODY

Preamble

We, the students of Sarasota Junior High School, recognizing the opportunities afforded us for intellectual and vocational training, and realizing our responsibilities to the democratic system of government which has made these facilities available to us do adopt this constitution in order to form a more democratic student body organization, promote the welfare of our school through good citizenship, scholarship, sportsmanship, principles upon which self-government depends.

¹³ "The Relationship between the Student Council and the Secondary School Principal," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 215), 39:151-152 (December, 1955).

Article I

(Name)

Section 1. The name of this organization shall be known as the Student Body of Sarasota Jr. High School.

Article II

(Purpose)

Section 1. The object of this association shall be to promote all school interests and activities, to share the responsibilities necessary to make the school a success, and to acquire a knowledge and practice in self-government.

Article III

(Membership)

Section 1. The membership of this organization shall consist of all the students and the faculty of Sarasota Junior High School.

Article IV

(Legislative Department)

Section 1. The legislative department power of the Sarasota Junior High School Student Government shall be vested in a representative body which shall be known as the Student Congress. The president of the student body shall preside over Congress.

Section 2. The membership of the Student Congress shall consist of one boy and one girl elected from each homeroom.

Section 3. The term of a member of the Student Congress shall be one year following his election. All vacancies shall be filled by election.

Section 4. Membership in the Student Congress shall be forfeited upon two absences without reason or for failure to perform the duties of the office. All absences and questions concerning performance of duties shall be passed upon by the Student Congress.

Section 5. A majority vote in the Student Congress shall consist of a simple majority of the entire membership. Said majority shall be required for all acts passed by the Student Council unless otherwise provided for in this constitution. There shall be no absentee vote.

Section 6. The powers of the Student Congress shall be to direct and control all school activities within the scope of action as prescribed by the Principal:

- A. To develop and adopt such bylaws as may be necessary, provided they do not conflict with the elements and spirit of this Constitution.
- B. To organize, promote, and supervise general and special elections, provide polling places, ballots, officials, and all other necessary equipment, material and personnel.
- C. To approve all presidential appointments by majority vote.
- D. To perform other acts which may be delegated to them.
- E. To initiate and approve necessary legislation, and to pass such emergency measures as may be necessary.
- F. To establish and enforce regulations for assembly, study hall, corridors, cafeteria, school grounds, social events and public functions, and to promote respect for school and private property.

- G. To consider policies, activities, and changes recommended by students and teachers.
- H. To present to the faculty and administration matters which are outside its own jurisdiction.
- I. To issue, renew, and, if necessary, revoke organization charters, and to promote and coordinate organization activities.
- J. To create, authorize, supervise and coordinate committees for specialized activities or service, and to authorize, sponsor, and supervise drives and campaigns.
- K. To appoint necessary officers or committees to interpret the various provisions of the Constitution.

Section 7. The president of the student body as presiding officer shall vote only in the case of a tie.¹⁴

The student body organization of the Mt. Diablo High School, Concord (California), has developed and added to its constitution a plan for a judiciary system. This plan is set forth in the following articles:

ARTICLE I. Officers.

- A. The officers of this system shall be:
 - 1. Chief Justice.
 - 2. Prosecuting Attorney.
- B. Qualifications.
 - 1. The qualifications for the Chief Justice shall be the same as for the Student Body President, the Vice-President, or the Sales and Finance Commissioner.
 - 2. The qualifications for the Prosecuting Attorney shall be the same as for the other Student Body officers, except that he may be a member in good standing of any of the four classes.
- C. Election.
 - 1. The Chief Justice shall be elected at the same time as his contemporary Student Body officers.
 - 2. The Prosecuting Attorney shall be appointed by the Student Body President, with the approval of the Student Council.
- D. Duties.
 - 1. The duties of the Chief Justice shall be:
 - A. Preside as judge at all hearings.
 - B. Appoint a Clerk. (Duties of Clerk: to keep a record of trials, and to keep a record of offenses and offenders).
 - C. Suspend or hold in abeyance any sentence he deems unfair.
 - 2. The duties of the Prosecuting Attorney shall be:
 - A. To appoint the Prosecuting Committee, in accordance with the regulations thereto pertaining.
 - B. To act as chairman of the Prosecuting Committee.

¹⁴ Published by permission of Principal Don Self, Sarasota Junior High School, Sarasota, Fla. Article V deals with the Executive Department, and Article VI with qualifications of Student Body officers and Student Congress members.

- C. To provide for the prosecution and defense which shall act during the trials, the latter to be the satisfaction of the defendant.

ARTICLE II. Committees.

A. The Committees of this system shall be:

1. The Judiciary Committee.
2. The Prosecuting Committee.
3. The Jury.

B. Constitution and officers of the Judiciary Committee—The Judiciary Committee shall consist of:

1. Transportation Commissioner (Senior Representative).
2. Assistant Buildings Commissioner (Junior Representative).
3. Head of Sophomore Service.
4. Assistant Grounds Commissioner (Freshman Representative) except such time as he shall not be elected (first semester of each year), during which time, the Grounds Commissioner shall be the representative in his stead.

C. Constitution of the Prosecuting Committee.

1. The Prosecuting Committee shall have as its chairman the Prosecuting Attorney.
2. The Prosecuting Attorney shall appoint three other students to assist him in his duties not in the same class as the Prosecuting Attorney.

D. Constitution of the Jury.

1. The Jury shall be chosen from a list of tentative jury men. The list shall consist of three people elected from each homeroom each semester. The Judiciary Committee shall select at random and review qualifications of the eight jury men selected, and two alternates.
2. At no time shall one Class have more representatives on the jury than any other class.
3. No juryman may serve for more than one day or until the finish of any trials he has started to sit for.

E. The Duties of the Judiciary Committee.

1. The Judiciary Committee shall serve as a grand jury at the hearing preliminary to each trial, in order to determine whether or not there shall be cause for trial.
2. If the defendant pleads guilty, the Judiciary Committee shall sentence the defendant forthwith.
3. If the defendant pleads not guilty, but is found guilty by the jury in trial, the Judiciary Committee recommends a sentence for the guilty one. Judge will pass final sentence.
4. The Judiciary Committee shall select jurists at random from the tentative jury list prescribed in Article II, section D, part I.
5. The Judiciary Committee shall supervise the correct policy regarding the publicity of the proceedings at all trials and hearings.

- F. The duties of the Prosecuting Committee shall be to assist the Prosecuting Attorney in the discharge of his duties.
- G. The duties of the Jury shall be to hear all trials conducted under the provisions of this constitution, to determine the guilt of the defendant and to recommend, if they should deem it desirable, the degree of leniency to be employed by the Judiciary Committee in deciding the final disposition of the case and the sentence to be recommended.¹⁵

The following article from the Constitution for the Student Council of the Central High School, Manchester (New Hampshire), illustrates somewhat usual practice in the membership of the student councils which typify student government in many schools (although this constitution also provides for a student court):

ARTICLE 1. MEMBERSHIP

Section 1.

The members of the Senior, Junior, and Sophomore classes who are willing to subscribe to the purposes of this council shall constitute the student body of Manchester High School Central, and shall be represented in a Student Council.

Section 2.

There shall be elected one student from each home room of the aforementioned classes whose duty it shall be to represent the members of his home room at all council meetings.

Section 3.

Nominations in the home room may be made either from the floor or by petitions containing not less than ten names of the home room students. . . . The person receiving the highest number of votes will become delegate. From the same nominees, on a second ballot, the alternate will be chosen. The delegate of the home room shall present to the council any petitions coming from his constituents.

Section 4.

No student shall be elected unless he or she maintains a satisfactory scholastic standing (as defined by the administration).

Section 5.

There shall be a faculty advisor for the council, nominated by the student council, and subject to the approval of the headmaster.¹⁶

This typical pattern of representation on the council by homerooms provides definite, democratic channels for governmental functions, and is generally followed.

High school teachers are usually related to the student council or congress through homerooms, too. They can do much to make the council

¹⁵ Published by permission of Principal Fred Diel, Mt. Diablo High School, Concord, Calif.

¹⁶ From Miller, Moyer, and Patrick, *op. cit.*, pp. 239-240.

effective by their guidance of homeroom discussions of matters referred to or from the council. They can also help greatly by their general attitude toward any student government arrangement, that is, by their willingness to give students a chance in legislative, judicial, and/or executive functions. Usually the principal or some designated teacher serves as adviser to the student council, and this person has more definite responsibilities. In some schools the intent is to have a school rather than a "student" council, and teachers may be definitely represented, as may parents and the community in general. Prospective teachers can learn to participate more effectively in these various responsibilities as they read about student government and also as they observe these organizations in action during their student and beginning teaching experiences.

OTHER ACTIVITIES

Supervision of study halls is a nonteaching assignment that many high school teachers have. Although large study halls are generally regarded as poor learning situations, they are still widely used. The better practice provides for decentralized study groups assigned during nonclass periods to classrooms having better study facilities. Teachers also assigned to these classrooms can give much more direction to study than they can in the large study halls. Despite the objections of librarians, libraries are also used for study periods. In any of these situations student monitorship may be quite helpful.

Although teachers are usually assigned to coordinate work-experience programs in the appropriate fields, other teachers may be called upon to help select, and perhaps to counsel, students for the programs.

Some of the most popular interests, such as music, dramatics, radio, television, aviation, and photography, have not been discussed separately in this chapter. These interests are either credit classes or noncredit clubs or both in the high school program. Teachers having such interests generally carry the responsibility for the classes or clubs, although again other teachers may be called upon in connection with the identification of interested pupils and with the programs produced for the school or community.

Securing Balance Between Classroom and Extraclass Activities

The traditional, selective high school was undoubtedly unbalanced in its program of study and recitation. Now many laymen and educators feel that the pendulum has swung too far and that the program is unbalanced by excessive extraclass activities to the neglect of study. Our own observations suggest that generalization is dangerous, for some schools still offer a fairly barren program of activities, whereas others

have so many interruptions of classwork for extraclass activities that one pities teachers and pupils alike. The problem of balance has several aspects to be considered.

BALANCE IN PUPILS' PROGRAMS

The problem of balance is especially acute with regard to the daily program of individual pupils. The most ambitious youngsters may want to be involved in entirely too many activities for their own good. Most frequently these are able students who need challenge and variety, but it may be that even these can dissipate their energies and abilities by spreading themselves too thinly over studies, organizations, offices, services, and so forth. Then there are the less fortunate who want to "keep up with the Joneses" but simply cannot achieve well in either their classes or their afterschool activities.

Various expedients have been developed to meet the balance problem. Some schools use a point system or other control on the number of activities in which pupils may participate. Eligibility rules sometimes prevent the poor achiever from overparticipation, but they may also prevent him from being successful in the one possible way. The activity period which makes a maximum number of activities meet at the same time automatically restricts participation and thus offers a distinct advantage. Although such measures may help, it is our belief that there is no good substitute for the counsel of teachers and parents who seek to help students make wise decisions regarding their school program.

BALANCE OF EXTRACLAS OFFERINGS

There is also the problem of balance as to the total number of activities to be provided by the school. How many clubs, publications, social functions, and so forth should be provided? Again, generalization is most difficult. There are several questions that a faculty concerned with this problem might study:

Is there adequate opportunity for all the students enrolled in it to develop a sense of belonging to the school? That is, are there sufficient programs, means of intraschool communication, and other procedures for developing a unified school organization? The most effective opportunities are generally as follows: (1) a school newspaper that is the product of the entire school, publishing school news and helping to form pupil opinion on basic purposes and issues of the school; (2) assembly programs that promote group solidarity by group singing, discussion of school-wide concerns, and organization of school-wide action programs, such as campaigns and elections; (3) varied productions and

events—athletic, social, musical, dramatic—in which many students, and different students for different occasions, have a share.

Is there adequate opportunity for all students to develop and deepen worth-while individual interests? Various types of interest inventories may be constructed or purchased to secure help with respect to this question. One needs to determine not only what special interests exist but what provision is made for them. Are the students who are interested in music, art, Ping-pong, checkers, aviation, photography, hiking, or camping, for example, given opportunity to develop these interests further in classes? If related classes are not available, can special-interest clubs be organized for students, with such faculty assistance as needed? Are both types of provision needed for several social groupings? Are clubs and other activities eliminated when student interest wanes or teacher leadership is lacking?

Is there an organized method assuring students' participation in school government? In evaluating or planning for school government in his school, the reader must consider how much students participate or will participate in all sorts of decisions affecting their welfare; in program planning, including such an evaluation activity as this study we are describing; and in the conduct of activities in and out of class. An adequate participation of youth in school government will include provision for pupil-faculty planning of all elements of the school's program, with all representative bodies responsible to the group represented.

Are activities in and out of class closely enough related to prevent undesirable duplications? Answers to the previous questions regarding any typical school would probably reveal the need for reorganizing both the classroom and the extraclass activities. Their relationship can be determined most effectively by proper identification of purpose with activity. That is, all-school activities can probably contribute more effectively to a sense of belonging than can any other type of activity, but each class or club group can serve this purpose by sharing in preparing materials for the school paper and in arranging programs for the auditorium. Special interests may be served by both class and out-of-class activities; analysis of the interests of the students enrolled as compared with the interests served by existing clubs and classes should give a basis for reorganization here.

Are activities sponsored that are so expensive or time consuming as to make it unwise or impossible for most boys and girls to participate? In general, we seriously question the school's sponsorship of activities which for any reason are closed to pupils who have the necessary interest and/or ability to participate. Activities should in general be supported by the school budget or school-raised funds rather than by direct charges to pupils. Activities which require considerable after-school time at school

also eliminate participation by those who work or ride a school bus. For this and other reasons we have mentioned, inclusion of a maximum number of activities during the school day, through an activity period or other device, seems advantageous.

If the school is small, are the best expedients possible being used to help provide an adequate activity program? Is full use made by pupils of resources in the community? Can community people be used as leaders in activities for which teacher-sponsors are lacking? Mimeographed rather than printed publications may suffice. Classes may meet as clubs to provide organizational experience. Assembly programs, student councils, and other activities may be less complex than in larger schools but just as real and valuable.

BALANCE IN TEACHERS' PROGRAMS

The activity program may also create an imbalance for teachers. The teacher who sponsors one of the more strenuous activities may find it difficult to do a satisfactory job with both his classes and his activity. For this reason, beginning teachers particularly should avoid undertaking a program that is too ambitious. Usually they find it desirable, in accepting a teaching position, to ascertain just what their responsibilities, that is, their work load, will be.

In larger high schools, with their extensive activity programs, most or all teachers feel considerable pressure from these programs. This chapter has detailed the various tasks of the teacher in regard to particular activities: he may be expected to promote and attend certain events, to help with publications and student councils, to chaperon social affairs, to coach his students for contests, to take his place in graduation activities, to monitor lunchroom and study hall, and so forth. All of these are important, but so is his classroom teaching! Our best suggestions are that teachers share these responsibilities with each other and with students in order to distribute the load, that they work through faculty planning groups to prevent imbalance in the school's program, and that, above all, they do a good job of classroom teaching. The absence of a beginning teacher from an extraclass event may be forgiven, but not his lack of preparation for a class meeting.

We should not overlook one other oft-cited teacher's problem in regard to extraclass activities. This is the stream of "interruptions" frequently created by change of class schedules, excused absence from class of certain students needed for rehearsal or trip or service, announcements to be made, funds to be collected, tickets to be sold, and so forth. Although some of the routines can be handled in the homeroom, the classes missed or those from which many students were absent are up-

setting. Our chief suggestion is that teaching plans be flexible enough so that a schedule change will annoy as little as possible.

The Teacher and the Parent-Teacher Association

This chapter should not be closed, we believe, without mention of one significant activity of teachers that closely relates to pupils' own extraclass activities. The parent-teacher association is potentially the most dynamic factor available for relating the educational experiences of youth in and out of school. In this organization teachers and parents work together to understand their common interests in education. Here they can, and frequently do, come to grips with such problems in the education of adolescents as their conflicting interests in study and play, activities which compete for their out-of-school time, codes of their behavior, appropriate study conditions at home, and ways in which parents and teacher can cooperate effectively with respect to individual pupils.

Some organization, usually an affiliate of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, exists in every community to further parent-teacher cooperation. In some high schools the membership (and program) may be broadened from PTA to PTSA, with the "S" for "student." Teachers, we believe, have a great obligation to participate actively in such organizations: to attend their meetings, to offer ideas, and to serve in such capacities in general as will further the education of boys and girls.

Preparing to Guide Extraclass Activities

Emphasis has been placed throughout this chapter on the importance of the students' own interests and plans in the organization of school life. Acceptance of this emphasis does not eliminate the teacher's role: rather, it makes that role all the more important. Thus we have called attention many times to the teacher's tasks and how he may prepare for them. Some teacher is the sponsor or adviser of every student organization, and the nature of teacher guidance determines to a considerable extent the success of each group.

As adviser to a student group, the reader will need skill in helping students identify problems, plan programs, evaluate outcomes. Here, as in the class group, he will need tact, patience, and resourcefulness so that, without dictating ends or means, he can help the group move forward. It is particularly important for the beginning teacher to have some well-developed special interest himself so that he can be a resource person for others with the same interest. Knowledge of the operation of student government plans, gained through observation of or participation in them as well as experience in conducting assembly, social, and other school-wide programs and projects is another essential for all teachers.

For Further Study

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The Teacher's Role in Guidance and Other Special Services

As the secondary school has expanded in population, services, and staff, the teacher's tasks have come to include many matters other than the guidance of classroom learning experiences. The last chapter identified many teaching duties relative to extraclass learning experiences. The present chapter calls attention to additional duties pertaining to the special services of the school. These special services, including guidance services, social case work, clinical services, remedial programs, continuation school, and placement services, are described in the chapter. First to be noted are the teacher's responsibilities as a counselor and as a coordinator of special services for his pupils.

Teachers as Counselors

Regardless of the number of special counselors who may be employed by the school, a classroom teacher is typically the first person at school to whom boys and girls turn for counsel. In the elementary school they have learned to consult their teacher almost as they consult their parents. In the usual, nondepartmentalized elementary school the teacher lives with one group of children throughout the school year, and through this close relationship comes to know more about each student than does any other school worker. Unfortunately, departmentalization in the secondary school causes each teacher to teach five or six times as many pupils, with each of whom he spends only about one sixth as much time, as does the elementary teacher. Yet even in the secondary school it is still the classroom teacher who has most opportunity to get acquainted with individual pupils.

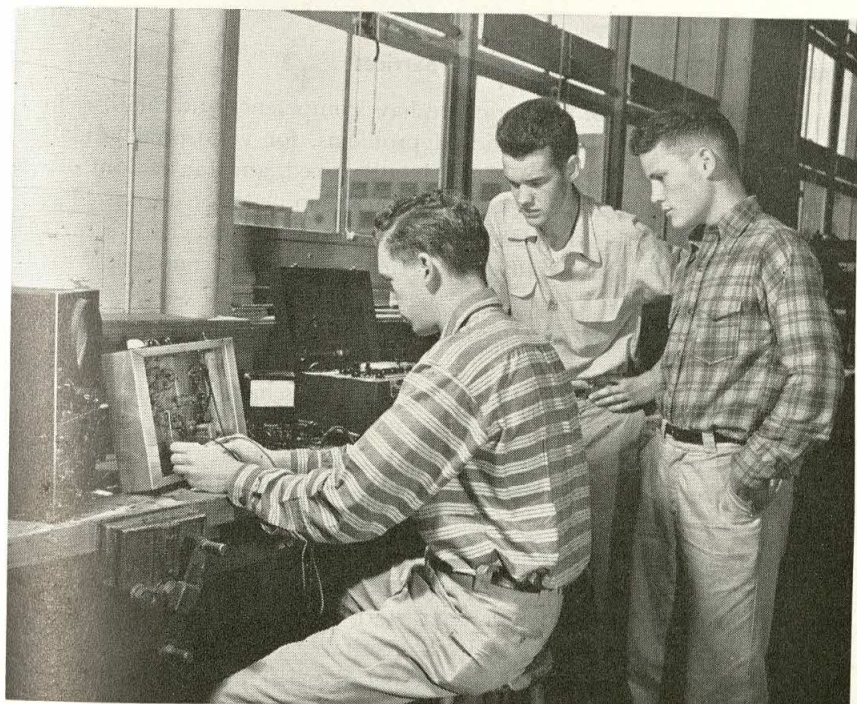
Under the core plan, the core teacher has two or three periods with his pupils, as compared with the one period they have with any other teacher, and typically becomes the person to whom they go first for counsel. If the homeroom period is an extended one, providing for activities other than the taking of attendance and the making of announcements, the homeroom teacher may become the first counselor for his homeroom members. Whether as a single-subject, core, or homeroom teacher, the classroom teacher is always a potential counselor for some boys and girls. Some of his counseling activities are well described in the following excerpt from the 1955 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development:

All teachers whether in the classroom or homeroom assist students in program planning. Sometimes this is done directly in the teacher's capacity of a student adviser, but just as often it is done directly in the classroom. It is imperative, therefore that the teacher develop as broad an understanding of the whole school program as possible so that he can answer questions, suggest alternatives and in general help the pupil to steer a course that will meet his needs.

In addition, each teacher should keep up-to-date on guidance matters pertaining to his particular field of study. For instance, the English teacher should be informed about college requirements in English; the commercial teacher should be acquainted with the employment opportunities and on-the-job problems his students will face when they enter the labor market; and the art teacher should know about the art schools and types of training available to his students. Such information is appropriately available in the counselor's office, but it should also be placed in the teacher's hands so that he may make use of it in his daily contacts with students. The guidance-minded teacher will find countless opportunities to use such information and to do incidental counseling before and after school as the pupils stop at his desk to visit, as they plan their club programs with him, as they talk together at social functions or in the cafeteria. If the teacher has an understanding of child development and what may be expected at a specific age level and then has been given a broad interpretation of the whole school program and the place his particular subject area occupies, there is almost no limit to the influence he can have on the growth and adjustment of his students, especially those who may never see a counselor or a specialist of any kind.¹

In addition to helping pupils with their program planning and vocational choices, teachers are also constantly dealing with a variety of personal and educational problems of their pupils. They help boys and girls select learning experiences, decide whether to miss school for outside interests, choose extraclass activities, reconcile disagreements with each other and with parents, form and break up friendships, improve their personal appearance, and on through a host of teen-age concerns. The

¹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, *Guidance in the Curriculum* (1955 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1955), pp. 122-123. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.



Teacher Guidance Helps Pupils Select the Right Courses and Vocations. The teacher of such a technical subject as electronics has many opportunities to advise students about related occupations. (Courtesy of the San Francisco Schools.)

teacher who takes the extra time to do these things is the teacher whom boys and girls like. He is the teacher they remember and after whom they model their own personalities and even their careers. This is also the teacher who enjoys his work and becomes a real "master teacher."

Frequently teachers feel, and are, inadequate to counsel their pupils on all the problems that exist in the typical class. They may be aided greatly by the availability of specialized guidance services, but in many schools there is no counselor other than the teacher. Even where there is, the teacher still needs to know when and to whom to refer a particular pupil for help on his or her problem. The referral itself is a counseling act.

Alert teachers are continually observing their pupils and reaching critical judgments regarding the behavior patterns and problems observed. Such teachers can render effective counseling aid. Frequently they realize their own need for special training in counseling, and if interested in this field take work to qualify for special assignment as counselors.

Teachers as Coordinators of Special Services

If every high school teacher could have competency and facilities and time for the diagnosis of individual problems, for vocational guidance and placement, for education of the handicapped, and for various other specialized fields of education, there would be no need for organized special services. Since this situation does not prevail, the need for some organized special services is universal. Their provision is much less prevalent. In general, the variety and the extent of special services are in somewhat direct proportion to the size and financial support of the school.

With over three fourths of all youth of high school age in school, the school population presents almost every individual problem associated with human beings. Within the usual class of some thirty pupils, marked variations are found in intelligence, previous schooling, condition of health, occupational aptitudes and interests, plans for further schooling, physical and mental normality, and all other characteristics.

In a democratic educational program, every student has a curriculum suited in part to his particular characteristics. The school must try to identify pupil characteristics and make suitable plans for each pupil in the light of them. The provisions of special personnel and facilities, in addition to the regular class and extraclass programs, for studying and helping individuals are considered here as "special services." For example, guidance services exist to help teachers in identifying such characteristics of pupils as intelligence, aptitudes, and occupational interests, and in making suitable plans suggested by this information; health services, in identifying physical characteristics and problems; and so forth.

In smaller and less well-supported schools, the school organization consists of a principal and a number of teachers whose functions may include such special services to individual pupils as the teachers' competencies and schedules permit. There may be some help from itinerant case workers and centralized clinical services. In the larger or the wealthier schools and school systems, more specialists and special services may be found. Regardless of the scope and number of special services, it is our opinion that a classroom teacher properly serves as the coordinator of special services for his group of pupils.

If each pupil has five or six teachers daily, as is typical in grades 9 through 12, and there is no plan of fixing responsibility for coordinating special services by homerooms, core groups, or counseling groups, the individual teacher may serve purely as a referral agent as occasion arises. In such a situation, no one may be really responsible for seeing that each boy or girl is getting the needed help. This may not be a problem in the

small school where all the teachers know and frequently discuss individual pupils, but in the larger school it is a very real problem. In these schools, consequently, various plans are followed to fix responsibility for channeling special services. In the homeroom organization, a common plan in which almost every teacher has a homeroom, the homeroom teacher is responsible for records, referrals, and other phases of coordination. Another plan designates a teacher or teacher-counselor as the coordinator of special services for his advisory or counseling group, usually somewhat larger than a homeroom group. The core curriculum plan frequently includes a provision that the core teacher serve as counselor and as coordinator of special services for his core pupils.

Another plan is based on the organization of "little schools." In junior high schools, for example, one group of four or five teachers teach in rotation the same sections of a grade; that is, they have the same pupils. These teachers, through frequent meetings and perhaps through their chairman, coordinate the school's special services for their pupils. In a few more ambitious attempts, the organization of a large school is so decentralized and the school plant is so constructed that there really are several "little schools," each with its center and its staff director.

A unique plan of exceptional interest is that of the White Plains (New York) High School. This school is organized into four representative divisions. Each division has approximately five hundred pupils, a director of guidance, and from twenty-five to twenty-eight homeroom teachers, all of whom work together during the three years the pupils are in school. The major responsibility of the divisional organization is guidance. A new building now under construction was planned to facilitate the housing of the divisions and also to add to their functions. A description of the proposed plan and functions of the divisions was provided us by the principal, C. Darl Long, by letter of August 26, 1958, as follows:

Our new building is planned to continue this type of organization and to enable us to add to the functions and responsibilities that are assigned to the divisions. Our objective is to capitalize on the advantages inherent in a large school and at the same time to capture and exploit the values and opportunities inherent in a small school.

The size of the division in our school will remain constant: 450-550 pupils. The pupils will be a representative group composed of 10th-, 11th-, and 12th-graders. It will be staffed by a director, ten "basic teachers," from 15 to 20 "associate teachers," and the required clerical and maintenance personnel. The staff and pupils will remain together during the three years that the pupils are in school.

The director and his staff will be responsible for the "general" education and personal development of the pupils. Specific functions assigned to the division are as follows:

1. Inducting and orienting pupils to the division, the school, and community.
2. Developing *esprit de corps* among the pupils, with loyalties to the division, the school, and the community.
3. Providing the counseling and guidance necessary to enable each pupil to participate in those school experiences that will result in the maximum development of his native and acquired talents, knowledges, and skills.
4. Providing the counseling necessary for each pupil to understand his peculiar abilities and talents and for him to plan and succeed in programs that will lead to the best possible career for him.
5. Providing a program of student activities that will be of interest and value to each pupil. This program of activities will include, among others, student participation in divisional and school government, special-interest clubs, social activities, intramural athletics, and, eventually, interscholastic athletics. . . .
6. Providing a program of parent education that will give adequate support to the educational activities of the division and the school.
7. Coordinating divisional policies, programs, activities, and procedures with the policies, programs, and activities of the entire school.
8. Administering attendance records and carrying out such activities as are necessary to ensure that each pupil meets state and local requirements.
9. Administering operational pupil-personnel and teacher-personnel records.
10. Administering necessary and appropriate disciplinary actions.
11. Providing, supervising, and administering all courses in citizenship education and in English.
12. Supervising maintenance and safety activities in those sections of the school campus assigned for divisional use.

The Teacher's Tasks in Special Services

Under any of these plans some classroom teacher is usually responsible for making sure that each pupil assigned to his homeroom, core, "little school," advisory, or other group is referred to such special services as are appropriate. Some of the tasks involved are described in the following paragraphs.

RECORD KEEPING AND REFERRALS

Teachers almost invariably have some responsibility for recording various types of data in pupils' cumulative or other records. Frequently the homeroom teacher is responsible for maintaining the records of his homeroom pupils. Regardless of the organization, the careful teacher makes good use of his record-keeping activities to detect needs for special investigation and help in regard to pupils' problems. Perhaps the marks Johnny was given by his subject teachers during the last marking period were substantially lower than those of previous periods. No teacher other than the one who places the marks on the report card and/or on the cumulative record would be likely to know that this drop had oc-

occurred in all of Johnny's classes. There is reason to investigate immediately, at least to determine if the teachers concerned are aware of what Johnny's difficulties are. Perhaps they are uncertain, and there is need to confer with the parents. The homeroom teacher should know whether the situation is such that Johnny should first be consulted, his parents called in for a conference, or a teacher or social case worker sent to Johnny's home.

Similarly, almost every type of record may contain information that is of significance in guiding the school experiences of boys and girls. The alert teacher interprets them as he records such data as attendance, standardized test results, health examinations, and school marks, and notes items that demand further study.

OBSERVING AND INVESTIGATING BEHAVIOR

Behavior is caused, we know, and the classroom teacher is ever observant of abnormal and unacceptable behavior so as to get at its causes and try to effect its improvement. Most of us who teach are not sufficiently well trained in psychology to be expert in the diagnosis of behavior, but we certainly can detect atypical actions. Indeed, the major difficulties most teachers recognize in their own work revolve around the behavior of their pupils. Some children are seen as too aggressive, others as too withdrawn, and still others as sometimes destructive, belligerent, and emotionally disturbed. Most of these behaviors at one time or another create problems in the classroom and must be dealt with. Although it is relatively simple to punish boys and girls for unacceptable behavior, repeated violations despite punishment are evidence enough that the punishment is ineffective in solving the problem.

What the teacher should do in instances of repeated and unacceptable behavior varies from school to school, and what he actually does may vary almost from classroom to classroom. One principle is certain: the teacher should handle behavior problems himself so far as he can do so without creating difficulties for the class and individual pupils concerned. Another sound principle is that behavior which he cannot easily explain needs further investigation. Both the investigation of unexplained behavior and the handling of acute disturbers is better done with outside help. The principal can help in such cases by getting information about pupils and by personally dealing with those who must be excluded from the classroom or otherwise segregated as disturbing influences. In larger schools the teacher may turn to a dean of boys or girls. For careful investigation of behavior difficulties, the school psychologist, the social case worker, or other such person is an invaluable but too infrequently available resource.

CONFERRING WITH PARENTS

Later this chapter will describe in some detail certain relationships between teachers and parents that promote effective teaching and guidance of boys and girls. Here we merely wish to emphasize parent conferences as one of the teacher's duties in relation to the special services of the school. Although the intensive work of investigating home backgrounds of pupils is properly done by the school's social case worker, if there is such a person, it is equally proper for the teacher to make initial contacts with the parents of all the pupils for whom he has a guidance responsibility. As the teacher confers with parents, situations may be discovered which should be discussed with the case worker; or, the failure of parents to come for conferences may suggest the need for a home visit. In either event it is the responsibility of the teacher to take advantage of whatever resources are available for case investigation. If there are none, the teacher may find it desirable at least to make a phone call or to write a note to the parents, or even to visit the home.

ARRANGING FOR TRANSFERS OF PUPILS

In larger schools having several sections of most classes, it is frequently possible to make adjustments in pupils' schedules. As the homeroom teacher finds pupils who have schedule or personal problems in regard to their class assignments, he may refer these problems to the counselor, the principal, or some other person. Although it is generally undesirable if not impossible to transfer pupils from one class to another simply because of their likes or dislikes for particular teachers, it is also desirable at least to investigate transfer requests and possibilities. Occasionally a pupil may have developed such an intense feeling about a particular teacher and class as to make his success in that class impossible. Equally unfortunate, a teacher may have become so irritated by a disturber in his class as to be unable to recognize this pupil's attempts to improve. Transfers are more frequently related to spacing of laboratory and gymnasium classes and study periods and to after-school work experience. All such problems should be identified by the teacher in his group of advisees, as created by the homeroom or other guidance organization, and called to the attention of the person who is able to investigate and do something about them.

PUPIL CONFERENCES AND REFERRALS

Classroom organization and procedure in the modern secondary school provide frequent opportunities for the teacher to confer with his

pupils individually. This may be done, as was noted in Chapter 15, in connection with periods of individual study and other activity as well as in conference periods during, after, and even before school hours. These teacher-pupil conferences are indispensable in effective teaching, for they provide teachers the opportunity to become better acquainted with their pupils' needs, difficulties, and accomplishments, and to give direct help in their learning experiences.

Such conferences are also essential in the guidance services of the school. If counseling periods are available, the counselors typically have conferences scheduled with all the students. But even without a formal counseling organization, the homeroom, core, and other advisory periods may be utilized for holding conferences or arranging for them at other times. As these conferences are held, the teacher seeks to identify any problems of a personal or educational nature on which he or other school personnel can help. Perhaps Mary is habitually late; or Johnny is never clean and neat; or Susan tries to do her homework during the activity period; or Richard never listens to the announcements. The homeroom teacher tries to get at the bottom of these overt symptoms of difficulty and takes whatever time is available to talk the problems over. Unless he feels he is making some progress he eventually refers the problems to the school counselor, the principal, or some other person.

ORIENTING NEW STUDENTS

The task of orienting the incoming student group is one which all school personnel usually share. The seventh-graders in junior high, the tenth-graders in senior high, the ninth-graders in the four-year high school—whatever the incoming group may be, in addition to all the transfers coming in throughout the year—all these pupils need to learn about the school's opportunities, policies, customs, and regulations. Frequently the core or, in its absence, one required subject in the beginning year is used as the center of an extensive orientation program. Perhaps the first month or six weeks in a large school are spent in these classes in studying school resources and personnel and policies.

Even where such an organized orientation program exists, there is still a need for helping new students individually. Hence the homeroom or other teacher with specific guidance responsibility takes advantage of every opportunity to answer pupils' questions, to explain to an individual matters that were not clearly understood from group discussion, and otherwise to help each to adjust as rapidly and easily as possible to the new school. Frequently this adjustment process necessitates arranging for school personnel to come to homeroom or orientation class sessions to explain their duties and the facilities they may have to offer. The

teacher is alert to the need for such explanations, and makes arrangements for them as needs arise.

ARRANGING CASE CONFERENCES

Later in this chapter case studies and case conferences are described as means of identifying and serving pupil needs. A case conference, briefly defined, is simply a coming together of the people concerned with a particular pupil in order to share their information and to reach conclusions, if possible, regarding ways of helping him. Someone must arrange these conferences. Although the social case worker frequently does so after his investigation is made, there may not be a social case worker in a particular school. Even if there is, the homeroom teacher may feel it desirable to have a conference of the pupil's teachers with the case worker before the investigation is made. Or the teachers in a "little school" may feel they need more information about several of their pupils and arrange for systematic discussions about each. These sessions involve not only themselves but perhaps the parents and any special guidance personnel employed by the school.

For example, in a senior high school operating under a homeroom organization, with the homeroom teacher responsible for pupils' report cards and cumulative records, a parent called his son's homeroom teacher to inquire why Jim had made such a severe drop in marks on the last report card. The homeroom teacher said that he would inquire of the teachers concerned, and call back. He also asked Jim's father to talk the matter over at home. When the homeroom teacher queried Jim's teachers he found varied explanations: the mathematics teacher said that Jim had not been turning in his daily work; the English teacher said that Jim simply had done very poorly on the final examination of the marking period; the biology teacher said that Jim had been sleeping in class; and the physical education teacher said that he had noted nothing different about Jim's behavior or performance. So the homeroom teacher decided that a discussion of Jim's case with his parents was in order and arranged a conference. When the group got together it was learned that Jim's parents had already found the explanation: Jim had admitted to them that he had become so interested in his short-wave radio set that he had been using it until late hours every night and letting his homework, which his parents thought he was doing in his room, go undone. Furthermore, Jim had told them that he had lost interest in his schoolwork and wanted to transfer to the vocational high school and take special work in radio and electronics.

Such a conference could be very rewarding as parents and teachers plan ways of utilizing Jim's new interest without his giving up the basic

studies in general education. The point to be emphasized here is the essential step taken by the homeroom teacher: getting enough information to indicate the need for the conference and then arranging it. Thereafter the people concerned are the ones to diagnose and plan, the homeroom teacher simply observing what happens, calling other conferences or talking to parents and individual teachers as the need to do so arises. He is merely coordinating the services available for dealing with Jim's problem.

What Special Services Are Provided?

We now turn attention to the specific services to which teachers may refer their pupils, however the referrals are made. In this section each of six major types of special services is briefly described. It should be emphasized that only our larger, well-financed schools offer all these services in complete detail. Some beginnings of one or more services are offered in nearly all secondary schools.

SERVICES OF GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS

Specialists in guidance may bear such titles as guidance directors, vocational advisers or vocational counselors, counselors, deans, coordinators, and directors of research or testing. A large school may have one or more persons, each of whom bears one of these titles, although in some systems most or all such specialists are assigned to a central office and work with various schools on a consultative basis. Frequently, guidance personnel also have administrative functions such as scheduling, social affairs, public relations, management of special funds, scholarships, and so forth, which do not necessarily relate to the provision of special services to individual youth.

The functions of persons bearing the same title but located in different schools or systems may be vastly different. Certain organizational relationships usually exist, however: these specialists consult with teachers regarding individual pupils and their problems and either make recommendations directly to the teacher and pupil or take direct responsibility. The specialists also generally carry on certain types of activities, such as testing and vocational conferences on a school-wide basis, providing results to teachers and others who work directly with the students. That is, guidance specialists should, and ordinarily do, work with teachers, conferring or otherwise working with individual students only on teachers' requests or as a part of some school-wide program of a special-service nature. A desirable relationship between teachers and guidance specialists is shown in Table 43.

TABLE 43

*Functions of Teachers and Specialists in Guidance Services**Principal (or designated representative)**Coordinates Administration of Services*

FUNCTIONS OF CLASSROOM (AND HOMEROOM) TEACHER	SPECIAL SERVICES TO INDIVIDUAL YOUTH	FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE SPECIALIST
Provides learning situations Collects data about interests Confers with youth on inter- ests Plans studies related to choice	1. Choosing a vocation	Maintains occupational ma- terials, files, records Observes youth at work Gives aptitude tests Interviews youth on choices Helps teacher prepare re- source units on vocations
Maintains records for spe- cialists Helps youth with applica- tions and interview preparation Helps youth with work habits and techniques	2. Finding a job	Maintains records for pro- spective employers Makes opportunity analyses Places youth in jobs Helps in adjustment on job Maintains records of follow- up studies
Collects data about inter- ests Maintains records for spe- cialists Confers with youth about needs Studies school's total cur- riculum	3. Planning an educa- tional program	Maintains records of college requirements Gives intelligence and other tests Studies success in school and college Advises faculty on curricu- lum changes
Studies youth's total activ- ities Maintains personal histories Confers with youth regard- ing problems and refers to specialists	4. Solving personal problems	Maintains contact with non- school sources of help Confers with individuals Arranges for special help
Observes difficulties in skills Administers diagnostic tests Confers with youth and recommends sources of help Gives remedial instruction Advises other teachers of needs	5. Overcoming aca- demic difficulties	Recommends or gives tests Refers to clinical agencies Confers with youth and teachers Advises teachers on remedial instruction

In general, the guidance specialist is a sort of "master teacher," expert in human relationships, since he must guide teachers as well as students, and competent in various specialized techniques suggested in Table 43 and described in more detail in this chapter. This specialist should have the competencies necessary to carry on the general functions described in the following paragraphs.

Maintenance of adequate systems of communication so that needed information about individual pupils will be made available. The larger the school, the more extensive is the reliance on records, memoranda, and other methods of written communication. These methods all lack face-to-face interpretation and discussion, and their usefulness is definitely limited by the amount of time that teachers have for consultation of records and similar tasks. Conference between the specialist and the teachers concerned is the best method of communication, but, again, its use is limited by the time factor.

Advisement of teachers regarding such problems as use and interpretation of special services in the community, diagnosis of individual problems, remedial instruction, techniques of counseling interviews, and occupations. These services can be and ordinarily are provided in group situations. Services of this type should also be available on request by the individual teacher. Unfortunately, teachers sometimes hesitate to ask for such help because of a feeling that to request it is to admit a weakness. There is needed a wider acceptance of the fact that skillful classroom teaching is a specialized service, too, and that the teacher is merely exercising his skill by seeking help needed from a guidance specialist in a particular situation.

Testing—administration of individual and group tests, analysis and interpretation of results, and maintenance of adequate test records. This is one of the most usual functions of the guidance specialist. The rapidly increasing number and types of tests and other instruments make it almost impossible for the classroom teacher to be familiar with all the varieties that may be helpful. It is essential, however, that teachers employ only instruments with which they can become sufficiently familiar to make their use worth while.

Liaison between school and college, home, employers, and social agencies. In the small school, the principal or teacher serves this function. In the larger one there is real need for a person with the time and ability to make the various inquiries and other contacts with outside agencies essential to a program of service to students.

Dealing with individual cases of maladjustment requiring special skill and training. Few, if any, schools can provide all the medical, psychiatric, and other services needed to deal with adjustment cases. Any well-trained guidance worker, however, should be able to diagnose

cases well enough to make referrals to whatever services are available outside school.

Maintenance of adequate records, and systems for using them, of pupil progress, of follow-up studies, and of college and occupational requirements. Records and studies are seldom adequate unless there are persons available and qualified for the work involved. Furthermore, the most complete records or research data have little if any meaning unless teachers can be given help in their interpretation and use. Specialists therefore need to keep records and make readily available to teachers whatever useful studies they have planned together.

SOCIAL CASE WORKERS

Few high schools employ on their own staffs social case workers as distinguished from guidance specialists. Attendance officers, however, have been fairly common and now an increasing number of school systems employ persons called "visiting teachers," "case workers," or "home visitors." Other school systems whose staffs do not include such specialists frequently have access to such services through local private and public agencies.

Services of these case workers are usually related to the pupils and teachers as follows:

1. Students whose absence, behavior, maladjustment, economic problems, or other extremely difficult situations seem to require special investigation and help are referred to the case worker by the teacher or guidance specialist.

2. Following investigation of home and other conditions made by the case worker alone or in conjunction with the teacher and guidance specialist, agreements are reached as to the next steps, and necessary action is taken by the teacher, guidance specialist, case worker, and others involved.

CLINICAL SERVICES

Some type of health service is available in most high schools, although in smaller ones there may be only an arrangement for notifying the public health department of an emergency situation. In many larger schools a school health clinic or department is served by physicians, dentists, and nurses employed by the schools or the public health department or jointly. In some situations such services are secured by an agreement with the professional group concerned, which rotates its members to provide these services. They may include care of emergencies, prevention and care of communicable diseases, physical examinations, and health counseling.

More and more provision is also being made for services relating to mental, emotional or behavior problems and related disturbances. In larger school systems some type of guidance or psychological clinic may serve all schools of the system. Considerable screening is usually essential in referring problems to the clinical services. Generally these are available only through a specific routine which involves referral by the school's head guidance specialist or the principal. Teachers whose schools are fortunate enough to have access to such clinical services should be fully informed regarding the procedure of referring pupils to the clinic.

The operation of a diagnostic center served by school psychologists in one large school system may be illustrated by a case history made available to one of us. A boy, aged fourteen, in the eighth grade; was referred to the center (available to all schools in the system) because of very poor schoolwork, very little effort to achieve, and social and emotional immaturity. His teachers felt that although he was functioning generally on a retarded level, he had more ability than he was willing to use. Following evaluation of the case by the psychologist, the following summary was recorded:

This boy is the second youngest of seven children and is the smallest member of the family. He has good relations with his siblings but does not compete with them other than the younger brother in sports. He tends, rather, to be dependent on them, and has never had any responsibilities in the home. The parents recognize that everyone has always considered him the baby and protected him. Recently he has shown aggressiveness and opposition when he wants to do something and others intervene. He belongs to no clubs and has very few friends at home or in school, although he expresses his dissatisfaction with this status.

Educational history shows that he has attended two schools. At the present time he has no identification with the school, does not participate in any activities, and displays no interest in group games. In the past few months he has begun to display negativistic behavior, interrupting class procedures, and creating disturbances. He seems to enjoy the attention he gets from classmates and teachers because of these actions.

Results of the tests indicate that this boy has an I.Q. of 85, with a verbal scale of 79 and a performance scale of 96. He is reading at a fifth-grade level, and at times is able to do eighth-grade arithmetic, but generally is successful only at a low seventh-grade level. He has difficulty expressing himself both orally and in writing, but works very well on nonverbal or performance material, showing good planning, effort, and interest. He displayed the inclination to accept errors and failures too easily, but could be encouraged to try again with more success.

The needs of this boy were felt to be varied in terms of school and home but had a common core. He needs to achieve a better self-identification in terms of capacities and limitations; to be aided in developing better interpersonal relations and identification with groups; and to be given reassurance that he is a responsible, acceptable person who can contribute to others and is needed.

Following her study of the case, as just summarized, the psychologist arranged a conference at the school of the parents, the boy's counselors, and the school curriculum coordinator. In this conference the following plan was determined as being the most feasible means of meeting the boy's needs:

In the school it was agreed to reduce academic pressures to work at an eighth-grade level in all subjects. A reading evaluation will be done to determine reading difficulties and a remedial reading program will be started. The teacher will make efforts to relate arithmetic to the boy's area of interest and allow him to work out problems at home, until he has recognized the relation of the subject to his goal of being a carpenter. Counseling by a man will be carried on beginning with vocational planning and, as rapport is established, going into the deeper personality conflicts. Whenever possible past successes will be used for encouragement and motivation, and to help him see relationships of classwork and other activities. He will also be asked to help with the audiovisual equipment in class, and if he shows interest and effort will be used in the school program. Whenever possible he will be asked to help with athletic equipment, and the coach will try to use him in planning activities rather than in participating on the school teams.

The parents planned a program of activities for him and would discuss responsibilities for work at home. His brothers and sisters would be asked to have him work with them and help them. The father planned to ask him to work as a helper during the summer.

After a period of two and a half months the psychologist reviewed the case. There follows the summary made at this time:

Results of the plan after two and a half months indicate that there has been some improvement in most areas. The first month he seemed to be testing each event or change to determine if the people involved were going to be consistent and follow through on the program as it had been discussed with him. During the second month and a half he seemed convinced and began to put forth more effort. He has shown definite progress in reading and is becoming interested in books as a source for other activities. He is now able to complete classroom assignments and is displaying some pride in his work. In some classes the amount of work assigned has been gradually increased and he has reacted favorably. He is slowly establishing relations with boys his age, but has not responded to the efforts of the coach and does not want to participate in any way in sports. He has tried to hide or cover up his pleasure when asked to help with the audiovisual equipment, but it is apparent in his behavior and the enthusiasm he shows in doing the job well.

The parents indicate that there has been more testing of changes at home but that he is beginning to believe they mean what they say and do. He has expressed no interest in clubs, but does have better relations with the boys his age in the neighborhood. He does seem to be happier and more cooperative and less negativistic at home.

Unfortunately, of course, the majority of schools do not have the services of diagnostic centers and trained psychologists. It is encouraging, how-

ever, that the number of systems providing such services is growing, and that they are generally available in our largest population centers. This case illustrates the fact that the clinical center and the specialist working closely with teachers and parents can contribute effectively to the diagnosis and treatment of pupils' problems. It is greatly to be desired that such services be made available as rapidly as possible in all schools.

REMEDIAL PROGRAMS

In addition to classes for the mentally retarded as described in Chapter 13, various so-called remedial classes or other opportunities are provided in some schools, especially in reading, speech, composition, and mathematics. Sometimes these classes are not really "remedial," but are simply sections for slow-learning or low-achieving pupils. Services which really "remedy" are based on careful diagnosis of causes and are provided to remove, or correct for, the cause. Thus, pupils who are discovered to have a reading difficulty that can be overcome may profit from remedial procedures. In the best situations remedial programs are not "classes" in the usual sense, but are provided just for the period needed and on a somewhat tutorial basis. In these situations, the classroom teacher may refer a pupil to the teacher in the remedial program, the two teachers keeping each other informed of the pupil's progress and ways of helping him. As soon as his problem has been satisfactorily solved, remedial instruction is ended.

PLACEMENT SERVICES

High schools also assist students through various types of placement services. In the small high school, boys and girls are ordinarily helped in finding jobs through the principal's and teachers' personal knowledge of opportunities. Businessmen and other employers come to the school for recommendations, and placement is an informal, though helpful, service.

In the larger schools placement services may be rather carefully organized, with a coordinator or counselor in charge. Inquiries are routed to this person, and students desiring employment make application in accordance with the placement office's suggestion. In schools having work-experience programs (see Chapter 14), most placements may result from students' employment during the high school period. Whatever placement services the school offers must be planned with regard to employment laws and in cooperation with governmental employment agencies.

Part-time placement services are also provided. In smaller com-

munities teachers and the principal may be asked by their friends and acquaintances to recommend boys and girls for after-school, week-end, or summer jobs. In larger ones, the placement coordinator may maintain registers of pupils interested in part-time employment and consult these as job inquiries come in. Some potential dropouts may be kept in school by careful matching of pupils needing employment with part-time opportunities.

CONTINUATION SERVICES

Many urban high schools continue to provide special services for students after they have dropped out of high school or have completed it. Thus follow-up studies of dropouts and graduates intended to help them in occupational adjustment and in securing additional training are made by many high schools. Perhaps the most usual purpose of these studies has been to get data for curriculum revision. However, they also may help out-of-school youth by providing information to potential employers or by suggesting additional training possibilities.

Apprenticeship training programs in which the schools provide related training to students working in various trades have become important phases of secondary continuation programs. With the aid of these programs many students are able to make a start in their chosen trade and to secure appropriate training for it.

Correspondence courses for students desiring to obtain required credit for high school diplomas are frequently offered through secondary schools, particularly those in rural areas where such courses may be given through the state university or through adult schools in cooperation with private correspondence schools.

Pupils who must go to work and cannot continue their day-school programs are also encouraged to complete their secondary education in evening or continuation school. Thousands of young men and women each year complete high school in this way.

To illustrate how placement and continuation services may really serve individual pupils, the following case is quoted from a United States Department of Labor publication, *After Teen-Agers Quit School*:

Lucille was 17 when she enrolled in the full-time continuation division program on leaving school. A big, unkempt-appearing girl, Lucille expressed her antagonism to an unsatisfactory home environment by refusing to cooperate in any way in the program of the continuation division.

Lucille's problems were considered in a conference between her instructors and the school counselors. It was agreed that a job which would challenge her to conduct herself as an adult might help this rebellious girl to overcome some of her difficulties. One of the placement counselors, with the aid of the personnel director

of a department store in the city, found an opening for her as waitress in the restaurant of this store, and Lucille transferred to the part-time program of the continuation division. However, instead of assigning her to the class in catering in this division, it was agreed that Lucille should be enrolled in an adult catering class in the school while continuing to attend the other classes in the part-time continuation division. She also received help in grooming through a school beauty shop.

Under the stimulation of a job which interested her, and the additional challenge of contact with adults in the catering course, Lucille's attitude showed marked improvement. She was successful in her job as a waitress and she continued on this job after completing her work in the Vocational School. When she was married, soon after leaving school, this girl, who had disliked everyone when she came to the program, invited the members of the continuation division who had worked with her to her wedding. She continues to drop in at the school for visits with the staff from time to time.²

OTHER SPECIAL SERVICES

Some teachers and laymen consider almost every type of specialized educational opportunity as a "special service." Thus, some would so classify the educational programs for the handicapped and the gifted, described in Chapter 13. As we see it, specialized education consists of educational programs seeking to meet the needs of various groups of pupils, whereas special services consist of means of identifying and planning for individual needs. Thus, a special service, such as guidance, is really a means of linking the individual and his needs with an educational program or job or other opportunity that meets his needs. In this sense we recognize as existing special services in secondary schools only those we have described.

It should be noted that the school frequently cooperates with other community agencies in providing special services to youth. We noted, for example, the use of case workers from local social or welfare agencies and of health services from the public health department or local professional associations. We should note, too, that guidance and especially placement services are frequently related to those of the local employment agency. For example, a cooperative program of the Youngstown (Ohio) Schools and the Ohio State Employment Service is described in the following excerpt from *After Teen-Agers Quit School*:

In general, the junior placement program, as it serves the school drop-out or potential drop-out, helps him get a realistic picture of the employment in his community in terms of his job opportunities. It provides the aids of counseling.

² U.S. Department of Labor, *After Teen-Agers Quit School: Seven Community Programs Help Would-Be Workers* (Bulletin No. 150; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 10.

testing, follow-up and placement, and sometimes starts him on a job before removing his name from the school rolls, thus making it easy for him to return to school if the employment proves unsuccessful.

The first effort of the counselor at the Employment Service, in working with these drop-outs and potential drop-outs, is directed toward persuading boys or girls of the importance of completing their schooling. The counselor considers that the difficulties of many youngsters who want to quit school are due as often to personality problems as they are to scholastic difficulties. She believes that if they can be helped to understand the nature of their problem, and remain in school, they have a better opportunity to correct their difficulties, and their chances for achieving satisfactory employment will be improved.

For students who think that getting a job will help solve their problems, the procedure of referring these youngsters to the Employment Service gives them an opportunity to "shop" for a job without jeopardizing their standing as students. It is significant that a number of would-be workers decide to return to school after they have discovered for themselves the importance employers place on completing a high school education.

The boy or girl who is definitely determined to seek employment is registered as an applicant by the Employment Service. This service makes an effort to develop jobs for these young people within the range of their limited education and training and offers them an opportunity to use their initiative; and, if possible, to provide some on-the-job training. The series of general aptitude tests, developed by the United States Employment Service, is given to some of these high school drop-outs, chiefly the older teen-agers and to those who are ready and able to form long-range vocational plans.³

Identifying Pupil Needs

We have called attention repeatedly to the teacher's tasks in studying individual boys and girls. The methods available to the teacher are the same as those used by the guidance specialist. Teachers are not always trained to use some of these techniques, and may be greatly helped by the specialist. Regardless of the investigator, the basic techniques of investigating individuals relate to tests, records, inventories, case studies, observations, interviews, and related items. The use of each of these is briefly described in the following sections.

TESTS

Probably the reader's preparation for teaching will include some course in which considerable attention will be given to testing; therefore we need here to comment only on the general uses of tests for identifying pupil needs. First of all, a word of caution about the use of tests: As yet no test or series of tests has been devised that diagnoses

³ *Ibid.*, p. 27.



Pupils' Needs and Interests May Be Revealed in Small Group Studies. These students are learning about the use of radioisotopes in medicine in a new situation where their interests and knowledge become readily apparent to an alert teacher. (Courtesy of the Oak Ridge, Tennessee, Schools.)

individuals well enough to replace completely the judgment of teachers and other persons who are acquainted with the students. Tests, regardless of their objectivity and validity, constitute merely one technique for studying individuals—a technique that must be employed with care and judgment. The scientific movement in education brought with it a great reliance on objective tests that has been somewhat reduced by studies showing the fallibility and limitations of verbalizations as measures of performance, either present or future.

There are, however, important uses to be made of tests by all who are concerned with the study of individuals. These uses may be grouped in terms of certain specific purposes: (1) to diagnose difficulties, (2) to estimate intelligence, (3) to determine aptitudes, and (4) to evaluate performance.

In general, almost every test may serve a diagnostic purpose. Both the essay and the objective tests that the teacher constructs for his classes can be formulated to give information concerning student difficulties

in comprehending questions and directions, in finding information in printed sources, or in interpreting graphic materials, and so on. Standardized tests of achievement have diagnostic value—in fact, this is usually their chief value—in that they provide information, through test analysis, of the kinds of difficulties students have in the subject concerned. Also, various standardized tests are now available for use in diagnosing difficulties in study skills, social adjustment, and critical thinking. Further information about such tests and how the teacher can develop his own diagnostic instruments may be found in various publications in the field of tests and measurements. See also “For Further Study” at the end of this chapter.

Intelligence tests, the forerunners of the modern testing movement, are almost universally employed in public schools to give teachers information about the capacities of their pupils. Too frequently, however, they are the only source consulted when estimates of pupils’ abilities are made. We now know that there are limitations of intelligence measures. Most teachers are given their pupils’ intelligence scores or intelligence quotients (I.Q.’s) that are derived from group tests, but such results should be checked by individual tests (given by a specially trained person) if they are to affect important decisions.

The most important problem in connection with intelligence measures, as with all other tests, is the use to be made of the results. Many types of school and after-school activities vary in their appeal to students of different levels of intelligence, and in planning with boys and girls we can anticipate success or difficulty accordingly. In general, intelligence scores in themselves are inadequate bases for planning individual activities, but they do help, along with other data, to anticipate possible needs.

Achievement tests logically accompany educational practices that aim for achievement in terms of acquisition of subject-matter learnings. Teachers’ tests, whether essay or objective, are characteristically achievement tests, although the term is sometimes considered to apply only to the standardized achievement tests widely published and used.

Achievement tests are now used to test not only retention of facts in specified subjects or verbal skills, but the achievement of much broader objectives, such as social attitudes, scientific method, social competence, current affairs, critical thinking, and work habits. Since our aims include the understanding and use of facts as well as the development of skills and attitudes, the newer types of test are more satisfactory; however, they are still inadequate because of the virtual impossibility of constructing paper-and-pencil measures that will test actual behavior.

Achievement test results, like those of intelligence and diagnostic tests, have real usefulness in teaching and guidance, provided that they

are used in the light of the cautions suggested. Their primary usefulness is the indication they give of the success and difficulties that students are experiencing. They may be effective in helping boys and girls to analyze their need for further study, to recognize the necessity of changing their goals or study methods. The most common misapplication of these tests is to use them only to compare certain individuals with others, certain individuals with the group, or one group with other groups. Such use is thoroughly inconsistent with an educational philosophy that accepts the individual student for his own worth and adjusts his curriculum to his needs, capacities, and interests so far as possible.

Aptitude tests have become increasingly common in the past decade or so and hold great promise for guidance services. Generally tests of some ability that is known to be significantly related to success in a particular occupation, they are at best only partial indicators and should always be carefully interpreted and guardedly followed in advising vocational choices. In general, use and interpretation of these tests requires special training. Special aptitude tests are available to test engineering, drawing, mechanical, nursing, music, scientific, teaching, clerical, medical, and artistic aptitudes, to name a few. In addition there are a considerable number of general aptitude tests, vocational inventories, interest inventories, and aptitude tests for specific subjects, such as foreign languages and mathematics.

RECORDS

Probably the teacher's most helpful sources for learning quickly about a new student in his group are the various records that may have been kept throughout the pupil's school experience. Much as teachers decry the drudgery of record keeping, records that give vital information about a student have significance for his teacher, for the guidance specialist, and for other school personnel. Teachers consult their pupils' records for various reasons:

1. To learn as much as possible about the boys and girls they are to teach
2. To find possible explanations of the observed behavior of a student
3. To determine possible standards for each student to reach
4. To secure information before the interviews arranged for counseling or other purposes take place
5. To prepare for conferences with parents
6. To prepare for case conferences concerning individual pupils

To accommodate such purposes as these, schools are increasingly using cumulative records, which contain in one comprehensive folder

or file all the essential information that can be secured about a student. This is in decided contrast to the traditional records concerned almost exclusively with subjects taken, marks assigned, and attendance. However, to use the more complete record involves complete understanding of the record system; the teachers concerned must have careful orientation to the system and must take the time to consult the records.

As a student, what does the reader think his teachers should know about him? As a teacher or counselor, what should he know about the persons whom he teaches and counsels? An adequate cumulative record should include, we believe, the following types of information:

Personal information. Date and place of birth, race, family history, home responsibilities, unusual experiences such as work and travel, educational and vocational plans.

School history. Schools attended, record of promotions and marks, courses taken, unusual successes or failures, honors and awards, attendance, copies of reports to parents.

Test data. Records of achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and other test results.

Extraclass activities. Membership in school and out-of-school organizations, student committees and offices, hobbies and leisure interests, experiences in community service or work projects.

Health. Reports of physical and dental examinations, illnesses, immunizations.

Miscellaneous enclosures. Anecdotal records of behavior, autobiographies, correspondence, copies of transcripts.

INVENTORIES

Closely related to aptitude tests is another pencil-and-paper method of individual study—interest and personality inventories. Any questionnaire used by employers to secure information about a person's character traits is a personality inventory, and so are many types of rating devices and scales designed to estimate personal qualifications, as well as the various types of check lists of personal traits used in reports to parents. Some schools employ standard check lists that all teachers complete annually for each student, these lists being filed in the cumulative record for reference by guidance specialists and others. There are also some standardized tests and inventories that can be completed by the students themselves to give information about personal qualifications. In general, these latter instruments have rather limited value for identifying personality traits; the case history, judgments of others, and observations generally provide more reliable data. Probably the chief use of the various personality inventories is that of self-analysis and im-

provement, but this use demands careful administration and interpretation of results with the help of specialists.

Various types of interest inventories are now being extensively employed. The simplest type, which the teacher can and should frequently use with his students, is a check list of various interests pertaining to occupations, recreation, or other centers of interest. More complicated are various published vocational interest inventories which seek to determine interests indicative of vocational aptitudes and preferences. Used by pupils and teachers with caution, these instruments have real value in helping pupils analyze interests and preferences and in leading to further investigations.

CASE STUDIES

Social case workers have developed a method of studying persons called the "case study method," which follows somewhat the scientific procedure of medicine in identifying symptoms, diagnosing causes, and applying remedial measures. A case study by a school psychologist was quoted earlier in this chapter. Although the classroom teacher rarely has the time and training for the highly detailed investigations involved in a complete case study, he can adopt the same scientific attitude. That is, he looks below the surface of some overt symptom of maladjustment to locate causes, and tries to treat basic causes rather than deal merely with their outward manifestations. In so doing, he will be fortunate to have the services of a visiting teacher, a psychologist, or other case worker. In the absence of these services, careful study of records and use of the techniques of tests, interview, and observation may be helpful.

A case study is merely an extension of the cumulative record; that is, in the case study the facts ordinarily contained in the record are studied more comprehensively, together with supplementary data. For example, a complete case study of a high school student would involve investigation, through interviews, tests, records, home calls, and other sources of information, of such factors as family background, health, educational history, economic and social status, parent-child relationships, out-of-school activities, relationships with other people, attitudes, emotional adjustment, vocational interests, and others.

OBSERVATION

The most easily practiced, as well as one of the most fruitful, techniques for studying a pupil is observation. Observation may help in identifying physical and emotional difficulties, in analyzing behavior problems, and in determining social characteristics. At the same time,

observation is more than mere physical association: teachers sometimes have students in their classes for a whole year without observing such obvious physical characteristics as nearsightedness, skin allergies or diseases, and adenoids. Effective observation takes place in varied situations and involves careful noting of relationships of actions and reactions of persons under different circumstances.

Observation methods are employed most profitably when specific questions need to be answered about a person: Does Johnnie have vision difficulties? Does Mary have a short attention span? Does Tom go to pieces in a difficult situation? Does Betty discourage association with other girls? When there is reason to suspect such conditions, careful observation of the person for periods of several minutes at intervals for a number of days may supply the answer.

At best, observation is only one method of investigation and must be supplemented by others. If it is to be helpful, it should be carried on in several situations and by more than one observer; moreover, its conclusions need to be validated by other diagnostic procedures.

INTERVIEWS

A characteristic activity of counselors is the interview; some guidance systems even base almost their entire program on a few short interviews with each student. The interview, properly set and conducted, is an economical technique for getting information, observing the individual, and answering as well as asking questions. It is a method that classroom teachers can employ effectively and economically if they have out-of-class time for this purpose or have sufficiently flexible schedules and arrangements within class to hold interviews there or in adjoining quarters.

Some of the situations in which teacher-pupil interviews may be helpful are these:

1. The pupil seems without purpose and/or interest, and the teacher needs to know how to supply or develop them.
2. The pupil's achievement is less than indicated by his ability.
3. The pupil's ability is such that he needs a challenge in studies that are too advanced for the group as a whole, and the teacher needs further information as to types of experiences that would be challenging.
4. The pupil's behavior is not understood by the teacher.
5. The pupil appears to have difficulty in social relationships.
6. The pupil is interested in changing his program of studies, or in entering a vocational field, or in preparing for further training.
7. The pupil has a responsibility as a class officer or as some other

chosen person, and the teacher can help in planning for this responsibility.

8. The pupil appears to have personality conflicts with members of the group or with the teacher.

The interview is most promising as a means of helping students in such situations when it is held under the following conditions:

1. The interview is at the request of the student or for consideration of problems real to him.
2. The interview is held in a relatively private, comfortable setting.
3. Prior to the interview, the teacher or counselor is as familiar as possible with the student's background.
4. Friendliness and mutual confidence exist or are created.
5. The problem is clearly identified and freely discussed.
6. A plan of action is agreed on, including plans for any possible help to be given by the interviewer.
7. Afterward, an adequate record of the interview is prepared as a basis for further interviews or for study and other action.

OTHER METHODS

In addition to the methods described in preceding paragraphs, several others are available to resourceful teachers and counselors. No single method itself is adequate, and frequently the use of one involves the use of another.

Autobiographies are commonly written by new students to give teachers a ready history of the individual. These histories provide information of a limited and subjective nature, but sometimes they give clues to interests and background factors needing further investigation.

Although accurate daily time schedules cannot always be secured, they sometimes suggest explanations of students' difficulties. The schedules should be collected at intervals for analysis before conclusions about them are reached.

Marks given by other teachers need to be examined, although reliance on these as indicators of interest or even success is not sound. They should be checked for confirmation of the students' own statements of interest, proficiencies, and needs, or for comparison with standardized tests and other data.

Conferences with parents and with students' other associates may be helpful in understanding previous experiences, family backgrounds, and present problems. Home calls are particularly profitable sources of information regarding home influences. Teacher-parent relationships will be discussed fully in a later section.

Maintaining Pupil Records

The teacher's guidance role involves preparation and maintenance of pupil records as well as their use. In general, the teacher's record keeping for guidance purposes is of two types. First, he must maintain records of pupils' progress to help pupils, to inform their parents, and to use later. Although these progress records, including the pupils' marks or grades, are primarily for the teacher's own reference, they are of major importance in pupil guidance. One of the first questions a counselor asks about any student is, "How is he doing in his classes?" Whether the teacher does the counseling or refers a pupil to someone else for this purpose, the pupil's record in the class must be consulted. It is indeed frustrating for the counselor or the principal, when consulted about a pupil, to ask for his class record and be given only a bare statement of periodic marks. With no record of the pupil's achievement or lack of it in various activities, and no indication of areas of strength and weakness and of progress or lack of it in these areas, the counselor must turn to other sources for information about the pupil's school-work. Accordingly, teachers who really seek to give individual consideration to their pupils usually keep some folder or other record on each pupil. In such a folder are filed samples of his work at frequent intervals, tests, and other materials that give ready evidence of a pupil's progress.

In addition to keeping his own record of his pupils, the teacher also contributes to the school cumulative record. This record, including such items as those described in the previous section, may be maintained by teachers or others on the staff. If various persons, rather than a guidance specialist or a school secretary, actually enter information in the record, some type of clear-cut instructions as to the form of the entries is necessary. Even if one or a few persons make all the entries, teachers still must turn in much of the information to be recorded. In addition to marks, such items as extraclass activities, honors, anecdotes, and unusual pieces of work can be supplied by teachers.

The duties of teachers relating to records also include attendance accounting, health records, notes on conferences with individual pupils and their parents, and reports of various and sundry special items needed for particular administrative purposes. The aggregate of these duties is sometimes considered very burdensome by many teachers. Nevertheless, the necessity of careful and complete records can scarcely be over-emphasized. It is virtually impossible for the counselor to have firsthand knowledge of the record of each person he counsels. If his services to the individual pupil are to be helpful, they must be based on the best

available substitute for firsthand knowledge: an accurate record of significant items about the pupil.

Making Referrals

This chapter has made frequent mention of the teacher's "referral" of pupils to counselors and others. A referral is simply the act of referring or passing a pupil to someone else who can help him. Thus, a referral may be as informal as asking another teacher to talk with Johnnie about some specified matter. It may also be as formal and well documented as the accompanying referral form used in a large school system for referring a pupil to some special service, including a guidance clinic serving the entire school system, outside the individual school.

Whether informal or formal, a referral should connote the teacher's beliefs, first, that the pupil needs help that can be given by the person or agency to whom the referral is made; and, second, that the teacher cannot himself solve the problem satisfactorily. Before a referral is made, therefore, the teacher needs to be reasonably certain that help is needed, that he himself cannot supply it, and that there is some prospect that the help, even further or better diagnosis of the problem, will be given by some other person or agency. Thus, the referral process further necessitates careful study of his pupils by each teacher, as well as a thorough knowledge of the resources available for helping pupils with their various problems.

Teacher-Parent Relationships

A significant aspect of the teacher's role in guidance services to pupils is his relationship with their parents. The importance of this relationship is clearly and strongly stated in the following excerpt from *Guidance in the Curriculum*:

Among the major resources available to teachers in guiding children are their parents. In fact, parents are perhaps the most valuable resource which teachers have, if they know how to work with the parents as partners. Parents and teachers are the principal guides of children, and only by working together can either hope to accomplish their objectives. It is essential that there be mutual understanding and cooperation between the school and the home, if the needs of each child are to be met.⁴

The Conant report, to which we have made frequent reference in preceding chapters, further emphasizes the role of parents in the counsel-

⁴ *Guidance in the Curriculum*, p. 174. Reprinted by permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

APPLICATION FOR REFERRAL SERVICE -- DADE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS, MIAMI, FLORIDA

Instructions to Principal:

Complete referral in duplicate; forward original to Director of Guidance Services, Room 330, 275 N. W. 2nd Street. Place carbon copy in pupil's cumulative guidance record folder. Attach all pertinent information not included in this referral blank to the original copy. Any additional information the school may be able to attach will be of aid in routing and evaluating:

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

Received: _____

Referred to: _____

By: _____ Date: _____

A. PUPIL IDENTIFICATION

1. Pupil's name: last _____ first _____ middle _____ Age: _____
2. Birthdate: _____ month _____ day _____ Sex: _____ Grade: _____
3. School: _____ Code: _____ School phone: _____
4. Pupil's address: _____ Home phone: _____
5. Father's name: _____ Occupation: _____
6. Mother's name: _____ Occupation: _____
7. Siblings (names & ages) and others in the home: _____

B. FAMILY CONSULTATION

1. Date and manner of preparing parents and child for this referral: _____

2. What were their reactions?

C. PURPOSE OF REFERRAL

1. Specific Purpose:

2. General description of problem:

GS:1 - 17M - Greemac Printers, Miami, Fla. - 1958-1959

(ORIGINAL)

Figure 19. Sample Guidance Services Application. (Reproduced by permission of the Dade County Public Schools, Miami, Florida.)

D. BRIEF MEDICAL & SOCIAL HISTORY

Give types and results of test or screening and dates:

1. Vision: _____ 2. Hearing: _____ 3. Speech: _____
4. Illnesses, accidents, operations: _____

5. Is this pupil now under professional treatment? Explain: _____

6. What other community agency now serves this child or family? _____
 In what manner? _____

E. SCHOOL HISTORY

School	Grade	Dates Attended	Promotion Record	Attendance Record

F. STANDARDIZED TEST RECORD

Give breakdown of most recent Achievement Tests as well as other standardized scores

Date Given	Name of Test:	(MA	IQ	GE	Other)	Administered by: Name:	Position

G. PERSONNEL INVOLVED IN REFERRAL

List names of all school personnel or others currently involved in working on this problem such as counselors, etc. Circle the name of any person who has attached additional information to the original report:

Date of Request

Signature and Job Title of Person Compiling

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL

Figure 19 (continued). Sample Guidance Services Application. (Reproduced by permission of the Dade County Public Schools, Miami, Florida.)

ing process: "The function of the counselor is not to supplant the parents but to supplement parental advice to a youngster. To this end, the counselor should be in close touch with the parent as well as the pupil."⁵ Conant recommends that through such consultation a program be worked out for each pupil each year. How is the secondary school teacher to maintain this "two-way communication"? We suggest that there are available at least three means of communication: parent-teacher conferences, reports to parents, and informal reports and conversations.

TEACHER-PARENT CONFERENCES

An increasing number of schools, especially elementary schools, are providing for parent-teacher conferences. In secondary schools, where each pupil may have five teachers and each teacher some 150 or more pupils, it is very difficult both for parents and for teachers to arrange a conference of each pupil's parents with each of his teachers. Nevertheless, conferences are frequently very rewarding for both parents and teacher and, ultimately, the pupil. Various means are therefore used to hold conferences on a systematic basis in addition to those arranged for the problem cases already described. Parents' conference days are scheduled when parents, by rotation or some other plan, are scheduled for appointments with their children's homeroom teachers or with the other teachers. Conference hours after school may be announced to parents, with a general invitation to them to arrange appointments within these hours. Conferences may be arranged for the parents of all pupils upon their first entrance to the school.

It should be pointed out that successful parent-teacher conferences require careful planning and preparation on the part of teachers. The arrangement of appointments is itself time consuming, but this is not enough. The teacher should familiarize himself with the record of each pupil before the child's parents arrive. Some schedule of questions to be asked and/or comments to be made should be prepared. Whenever possible, samples of pupils' work should be ready to show their parents. Notes on the conference should be prepared, preferably just after it is held. There may also be agreements reached which require additional conferences with pupils and parents and perhaps with other teachers.

REPORTS TO PARENTS

Although the traditional report card is primarily one-way communication, some new practices encourage two-way communication.

⁵ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), pp. 44-45.

Space for parents' comments is frequently provided on the report card. The card may bear a request to the parent for a conference if the school needs further information. The report of marks may be supplemented by a check list or by a letter inviting a response from the parents. Some teachers send home samples of pupils' work periodically and invite parents' reaction.

The traditional report card is criticized not only for its failure to secure reactions and suggestions from parents but also for its inadequate interpretation of pupils' school progress. The typical report simply tells parents that their children are doing work of A, B, C, D, E, or F quality, without very full explanation of what these marks mean. Furthermore, it is a well-known fact that the same marks do not mean the same quality of performance to different teachers.

As parents as well as teachers, we ourselves have observed the interest of parents in two kinds of information. They want to know, first, how their children are doing in relation to accepted achievement standards in the subjects and at the grade concerned. In general, this is what the marks of A, B, C, and so on, usually tell, but sometimes the marks also reflect teachers' opinions of pupils' attitudes and efforts as much as or more than they reflect pupils' real achievement. Parents want to know, secondly, whether their children are doing as well as they should—that is, are they making the progress that their abilities indicate is possible? Report cards rarely give this information. Some schools are experimenting with various approaches to a dual marking system—one that gives both types of information parents desire.

INFORMAL REPORTS AND CONVERSATIONS

Alert teachers are on the lookout for opportunities to talk with parents about their children's school progress. In small communities these opportunities may be very frequent. In larger ones, teachers sometimes have little or no chance to see their pupils' parents without the formal arrangement of a conference. In such communities, the parent-teacher meeting may be the one opportunity that teachers have to meet parents. Frequently one or more school programs are arranged so that parents follow their children's schedule on an abbreviated basis and thus have a short session with each teacher. Such a visit presents an opportunity for the teacher to establish an acquaintance which may encourage the conscientious parent to seek another meeting in the interest of his child. Teachers may also telephone, make home visits, and write occasional informal notes in order to share with parents information about their children's progress at school.

Teaching and Guidance: A Summary

Throughout, this chapter has called attention to the fact that the teacher may not be the only person in the school organization providing guidance services to pupils, but that the teacher's own guidance role is of first importance. The fact that in larger schools some persons have designated guidance responsibilities by no means alters the classroom teacher's primary duty of identifying pupils' characteristics and needs and providing for these as best he can. Our point of view is that all pupils need the guidance of their teachers, not only in classroom learning experiences but in relation to their personal, educational, and vocational plans and problems. Further, we believe that the teacher must be the person to serve as a liaison between pupils and the special personnel in the school who are able to give more technical help than the teacher can. Thus teaching is a broad and inclusive job challenging us to know our pupils as individuals and to guide their learning and general development so that they will achieve their fullest potentialities. It is also a rewarding occupation, for there is no greater satisfaction than the realization that one has helped to bring about fundamental changes to the good in people. One cannot see teaching in this way without recognizing that teaching and guidance are really inseparable. This remark in no way, of course, denies the importance of the special services of guidance and other specialists described in this chapter.

For Further Study

Arbuckle, Dugald S. *Guidance and Counseling in the Classroom*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1957.

See especially Chapter 3, "Teachers as Guidance Workers," and Chapter 5, "Teacher-Counselors in Action."

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *A Look at Continuity in the School Program*. 1958 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958.

Concerned with the entire problem of securing continuity in educational experiences of children and youth, this publication offers particular help to teachers and guidance workers through its review in Part III of promising practices of pupil adjustment and orientation.

———. *Guidance in the Curriculum*. 1955 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1955.

Deals with role of classroom teachers as well as guidance specialists in the guidance of boys and girls.

Blair, Glenn Myers. *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Rev. ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956.

A useful analysis for the teacher interested in providing for individual pupils who have difficulty in the skills. Chapter 1 to 7 deal with diagnostic and remedial teaching of reading. Chapter 12 explains how to make a case study and includes illustrative studies.

Board of Education of the City of New York. *Health Guidance and Health Service in Secondary Schools*. Curriculum Bulletin, 1955-1956 Series, No. 8. New York: The Board, 1956.

Policies and procedures of the health guidance and health services programs in New York City junior and senior high schools.

Brewster, Royce E. *Guidance Workers—Certification Requirements*. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1957, No. 22. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957.

Lists by states certification requirements for school counselors and psychologists.

Chase, Francis S., and Harold A. Anderson, eds. *The High School in a New Era*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Several articles describe or propose effective ways of organizing the high school and its services to provide better for individual youth. See especially those by Michael, Shaw, and Lund.

Conant, James B. *The American High School Today*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959.

Includes several recommendations as to the need for increased guidance services in secondary schools.

Foster, Charles R. *Guidance for Today's Schools*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1957.

Emphasizes opportunities and techniques for guidance in the classroom.

Gordon, Ira J. *The Teacher as a Guidance Worker*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956.

This book is based on the premise that the teacher plays the key role in the total guidance program. See Part III in particular.

Gruhn, William T., and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956.

Chapters 11 and 12 deal, respectively, with the guidance program and the homeroom, in junior high schools.

Kelly, Janet A. *Guidance and Curriculum*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955.

Considers the teacher as the "pivot" for guidance activities in the secondary school.

McCreary, William H., and Donald E. Kitch. *Now Hear Youth*. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXII, No. 9. Sacramento: Roy E. Simpson, Superintendent of Public Instruction, October, 1953.

Compilation of follow-up studies of school dropouts and graduates, conducted by several California school districts.

McDaniel, Henry B., with G. A. Shaftel. *Guidance in the Modern School*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1956.

Comprehensive treatment of school counseling and guidance written in lay language. Several chapters discuss the teacher's role in the various aspects of guidance.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Adapting the Secondary School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Fifty-second Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953.

See especially Ruth Strang's chapter (11), "Guidance to Meet the Needs of Youth."

———. *Education for the Gifted*. Fifty-seventh Yearbook, Pt. II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Several chapters (especially 8, 9, 14, and 18) in Section III relate to special services for gifted students.

Strang, Ruth. *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. 4th ed. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

Specific illustrations of guidance opportunities and techniques in classrooms and school activities.

Traxler, Arthur E. *Techniques of Guidance*. Rev. ed. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

Specific treatment of the methods of gathering and using information for pupil guidance. Chapter 16 deals with the role of the teacher in guidance.

United States Department of Labor. *After Teen-Agers Quit School: Seven Community Programs Help Would-Be Workers*. Bulletin No. 150. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956.

Description of programs in Detroit, Milwaukee, Philadelphia, Richmond, Roanoke, St. Louis, and Youngstown.

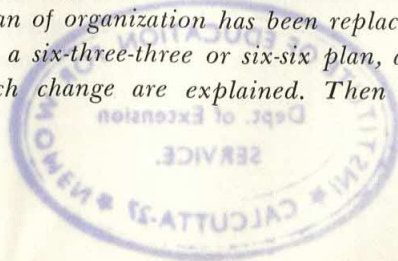
part six

THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Teachers are well aware of the fact that schools must be organized so that they can be administered and they must be administered so that teaching can be carried on. The political and social structure in which the school exists has important bearing on the nature and character of the educational program made available to boys and girls. And the character and quality of the administration of the schools themselves determine the framework within which teaching must proceed. So teachers are vitally concerned with the structure and administration of education in this country. Part Six will examine these matters, largely on the basis of their importance to the work of the teacher.

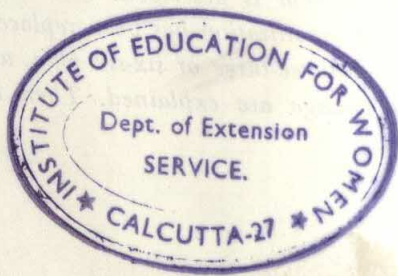
Chapter 18 discusses the legal basis of education in this country. The responsibilities and activities of the federal government, the state government, and the local unit of school government in the establishment, control, and management of schools are analyzed in some detail. Emphasis is given to the point of view that the best schools can be obtained when teachers and administrators are given freedom to develop programs that promise most in the attainment of accepted goals of education.

In Chapter 19 attention is given to the administration of the school itself. The vertical organization of the school system is described. The traditional eight-four plan of organization has been replaced in many systems by a six-three-three or six-six plan, and the reasons for such change are explained. Then the nature of ad-



ministration itself is explored, and the teacher's relations to the administrative staff are discussed.

Some selected administrative problems, of special significance to classroom teachers, are considered.



Administrative Responsibility for Secondary Education in America

If boys and girls are to have the privilege of participating in the kinds of learning experiences described in previous chapters of this book, it is apparent that society must establish agencies and assign responsibilities to someone to plan, organize, and guide the development of these learning activities. Thus we have schools—schools that dot the landscape throughout America, schools that constitute an integral part of the life of the people, schools that have one and only one primary responsibility: to provide the best kind of education possible for boys and girls.

Who establishes these high schools? Who controls them? Who finances them? Who operates them? These are questions this chapter will consider. Secondary school teachers need to understand the administrative structure of education in this country if they are to be informed members of the profession.

The Legal Basis of Education

To understand the administrative arrangements for providing education in this country, we must review the federal system of government. In founding the United States as a republic, the thirteen original states possessed the powers ordinarily accorded to governments; in fact, they had been so exercising them. The states sent representatives of these existing governments to a constitutional convention in 1787, in which it was decided to surrender some of the usual powers of government to a new central government. In granting these powers to the national government, the states specified in the constitution the powers that were to

be exercised by this new government. All other powers of government remained with the respective states. In fact, to make certain that there be no misunderstanding of this principle of delegated powers, the states later adopted the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution stating this concept of constitutional law. Thus, our federal government possesses only those powers granted in the Constitution and as since amended. James Madison, in urging the ratification of the new Constitution, stated the basic concept of our federal system well:

The powers delegated by the proposed Constitution to the Federal Government, are few and defined. Those which are to remain in the State Governments, are numerous and indefinite. . . . The powers reserved to the several States will extend to all the objects, which, in the ordinary course of affairs, concern the lives, liberties, and properties of the people; and the internal order, improvement, and prosperity of the State.¹

AUTHORITY TO ESTABLISH AND CONTROL SCHOOLS

The establishment and control of schools is one of the most important of the powers of government retained by the states, since at no place in the Constitution is the power to control education in any way or to establish schools delegated to the federal government. This has been a historic policy of this country, the wisdom of which has never been seriously questioned by responsible citizens throughout the life of this nation. Even the most ardent supporter of federal aid for schools would never agree to any exercise of control by the federal government over the public schools of this land.

The establishment and control of schools, then, is solely the responsibility of the states, reserved to them by the Constitution. This was not a new responsibility suddenly dumped on the states by the turn of events in the Revolution; the colonies, as noted in Chapter 4, had from the first days of their establishment exercised for all practical purposes complete authority over organized education. The colonists of Massachusetts simply took matters into their own hands and provided for the establishment of schools even though specific authority to do so did not exist in their charter nor had the mother country required or even suggested such action. Thus in 1642 they passed the first ordinance relating to education. The other colonies took similar action at various times during their history, not relying on the home government to take this initiative or to dictate to them in matters of education. By 1787 the principle of vesting responsibility for the founding and control of schools in the

¹ James Madison, "A Further Discussion of the Supposed Danger from the Powers of the Union, to the State Governments" in E. H. Scott (ed.), *The Federalist and Other Constitutional Papers* (Chicago: Albert Scott & Company, 1894), p. 258.

hands of the people of the various colonies, and later states, had been well established. This basic principle has guided the development of the American public school system throughout its history.

In organizing state governments, the people have usually written into their state constitutions provisions for the establishment of schools to ensure that the state agencies of government would carry out this basic responsibility. Some of the articles are simply delegations of power by the people to the state government to establish and control schools; others contain more elaborate provisions. But in all states, the state government is required to provide free public schools for all of the children.

In all of the forty-nine states, the state governments, in fulfilling their responsibilities for education, have created a subunit of government whose sole function is to found and operate a system of public schools for all the children. These are our school districts. To understand clearly the structure of public education in this country it should be emphasized that school districts are creatures of the state, and that the state government possesses and retains complete authority, within the prescriptions of the state constitution and the rights of the people as federal citizens, over the educational program of the state—at all levels and of all types. The state has absolute and irrevocable authority, within these two limitations, over the school districts it has created. These can exercise only the powers that the state has granted them, and can function only within the framework of laws enacted by the state. Moreover, in some states and in some aspects of administration, the local school district has been made subject to the control of an intermediate unit of government that stands between the district and the state.

Let us now turn to the functions and responsibilities of the various agencies of government in the establishment, control, and operation of schools.

The Role of the Federal Government in Public Education

Even though the authority to establish schools and to control education is reserved to the states, it would be quite erroneous to assume that the federal government has taken no part in the development of the educational system of this country. In fact, it has been very active in promoting education throughout the history of the Republic and has contributed significantly to the advancement of education. Since it was not delegated powers to establish schools or to promote the education of its citizens, it has carried out its assistance to education and exercised whatever control it has through its powers to promote the general welfare of the people, through other grants of power to the federal government,

and through the protection of the citizens in the rights guaranteed them by the federal Constitution. Federal relations to education may be classified as

grants to states or schools for the support of education;
grants to individuals and agencies for educational purposes;
establishment and operation of educational agencies by the federal government;
leadership and research in education; and
protection of the rights of federal citizenship with respect to education.

FEDERAL GRANTS FOR THE SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

Federal aid to education preceded the adoption of the Constitution itself, and ever since the founding of the Republic Congress has in one form or another provided subsidies to the states for the support of education.

Land grants to the states. The continental Congress in 1785 provided that in the surveying of the lands in the western territories "there shall be reserved the lot number 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools within said township." This is the origin of the extensive grants of land made to most of the new states as they were organized as territories or admitted as states. It set the precedent for the continuing federal interest in the development of education in the respective states. Later, in the famous Northwest Ordinance of 1787, Congress stated that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." In that same year, in disposing of public lands in Ohio, it spelled out this interest by setting aside section 16 of each township for schools. In 1803, following the admission of Ohio as a state, control of these lands was turned over to the state itself, and in addition grants of land were made for the support of a seminary of learning (university). With some minor exceptions, this policy of granting lands for the support of education was followed in the establishment of each new state. Beginning with the creation of Oregon in 1848 the grants were increased to two sections in each township, and in 1896 they were increased to four sections. In the act admitting Alaska, passed in 1958, Congress, however, allocated 5 per cent of the net proceeds of all sales of public land for the support of public schools in that state. Thirty states, all of those admitted since 1802, except Texas, Maine, and West Virginia, have been the beneficiaries of this federal interest in education. Thus we see that grants by the national government for the support of public education predate the Constitution itself.

Some additional grants of land have also been made: Up to 1927

saline lands, in the amount of 834,000 acres, had been granted to the states, most of which were used for the support of education. Between 1841 and 1889, 500,000 acres of public land were donated to each state admitted after 1800, except Maine, for public improvement, and most of these lands were used to finance schools. In addition, certain states were granted swamp lands; as a rule, they used these resources for support of schools. Alaska, however, was granted a total of 102,550,000 acres of public lands in lieu of all of these grants made to other states for specific purposes, including the establishment of a land-grant college.

In addition to the land grants for the support of the common schools, the federal government, since 1803, has granted tracts of public land at one time or another to thirty states other than Alaska for the establishment and support of institutions of higher learning. Furthermore, in 1862 Congress passed the famous Morrill Act, which granted every state in the Union 30,000 acres of land for each senator and representative included in its delegation in Congress for "the endowment, support, and the maintenance of at least one college where the leading objects shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe. . . ." This is the basis for the establishment of our present system of "land-grant" colleges and universities, some of the most famous of all of our institutions of higher learning today. A number of states have combined this agricultural and mechanical college, or land-grant institution, with the state university. It will be noted that these grants introduce a measure of federal dictation, for the Morrill Act specified in broad terms the types of curriculums that were to be provided.

Cubberley estimates that the states (not including Alaska) have received "about 145,000,000 acres of public land for educational purposes (226,562 square miles; an area nine tenths as large as the entire old North-West Territory)" ²

Money grants to the states or schools for education. Federal assistance to the states in support of the common schools was not limited to land grants, extensive as these were. Long ago, the federal government adopted the practice of granting sums of money to the states and to the land-grant colleges for the subsidy of specific types of educational undertakings. In addition, many grants are made to individuals or agencies or are spent directly by the federal government itself for educational purposes. The extent of such activities in behalf of education is indicated by the fact that, according to the United States Office of Education,

² Ellwood P. Cubberley, *State School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927), p. 46.

a total of \$1,997,823,513 was expended by the federal government in 1956-1957 for the support of 137 educational enterprises of one sort or another that come within the definition of the educational activities set up by that agency.³

The most important of these grants for the support of public schools is the subsidy for vocational education in the secondary schools. In 1917 Congress passed the well-known Smith-Hughes Act, authorizing the allocation of funds to the states for the support of approved programs in vocational education. The program was expanded by the George-Barden Act, passed in 1946, and by earlier legislation, so that presently grants are available for programs in agriculture, home economics, trades and industries, and distributive occupations. The grants may be used in support of regular daytime programs in the schools, adult education classes, teacher training, vocational guidance, and apprentice training. Appropriations under these laws amounted to \$40,881,411 in 1957-1958. These subsidies are allocated to the states, which, in turn, administer the grants, paying direct subsidies to local school districts that offer programs in these areas that qualify on the basis of the federal requirements and state regulations established pursuant to federal and state law. In the National Defense Education Act of 1958, Congress further allocated \$15,000,000 for each year from 1958 through 1962 to promote the development of area vocational education programs and special programs for the development of vocational skills in scientific and technical fields required in the national defense.

Since 1950 federal grants of money have been made to local school districts that are seriously burdened in financing schools because of the impact of federal activities in the community. The burden may arise (1) because the federal government, by its purchase of real property, may reduce excessively the taxable valuation of property in the district, or (2) because of increased enrollments in the schools due to an influx of people in the community as a result of the establishment or expansion of a military base, the location of a federal agency in the city, or the establishment or expansion of a factory or business enterprise engaged in filling government contracts. The grants may be made for the maintenance and operation of the schools or the construction of school buildings. In the eight-year period from 1950 to 1958, Congress appropriated \$618,550,788 for the maintenance and operation of these schools, a total of \$546,347,436 having been disbursed or authorized during the seven years from 1950 to 1957 for the construction of new schools. In addition, the federal government is authorized by Congress to construct schools on federal bases where no local educational authority can accept responsi-

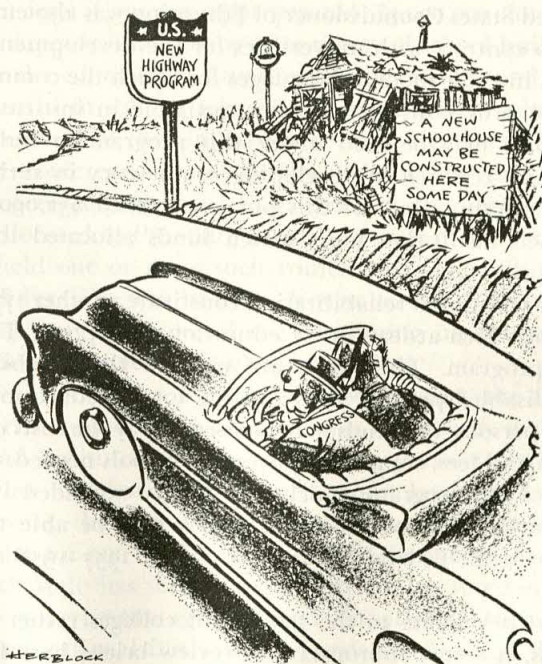
³ U.S. Office of Education, *Federal Funds for Education: 1956-57 and 1957-58* (Bulletin 1959, No. 2; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1959).

bility for the education of children residing there. Usually such a school is under the control of local or state educational authorities, even though the federal government may pay the costs. From 1950 to 1957, a total of \$57,965,111 was expended for such purposes.

Beginning in 1946, subsidies for a school lunch program were provided by Congress. This program is administered by the United States Department of Agriculture, but the funds are paid to the states, which in turn disburse them to the schools; exceptions are the private schools in some states, which receive reimbursement direct from the federal government because state law prohibits payment to such schools by the state itself. The funds are used to pay a portion of the cost of lunches served school pupils in accordance with approved policies. In addition, large amounts of "surplus" food and commodities, purchased by the Department of Agriculture as a part of its effort to control farm prices, are made available gratis to schools for use in this program. In 1956-1957, the cash appropriations amounted to \$83,915,000, the gifts of surplus foods being estimated to be worth \$146,631,933.

The National Defense Education Act of 1958, passed by Congress on August 21, 1958, authorized substantial grants of money to the states to

"Ain't She A Beaut'?"



from Herblock's *Special for Today* (Simon and Schuster, 1958)

assist in the improvement of instruction in the fields of science, mathematics, and modern languages, and in the development of better counseling and guidance services. The law provided \$70,000,000 each year for the four-year period from July 1, 1958, to June 30, 1962, for grants to the states for the purchase of equipment and aids for use in these three subject fields and for minor improvements in laboratories, facilities, and the like. An additional sum of \$5,000,000 was made available to assist in providing supervisory services in these fields.

The law also authorized grants of \$15,000,000 a year for the four-year period to assist states in establishing and maintaining programs of testing and guidance and counseling in the schools. After the first year, these grants must be matched by state or local funds.

Congress also made funds available to assist in the education and training of teachers and other school personnel for service in these four areas. A total of \$28,000,000 (\$6,250,000 in 1958-1959 and \$7,250,000 for the next three years) was allocated for the support of short-term or regular session institutes for the training of school personnel engaged in guidance and counseling work, and \$29,000,000 during the period for similar institutes for teachers in the modern language field. The National Science Foundation, a government agency, had previously been granted funds for holding such institutes for teachers in science and mathematics.

The United States Commissioner of Education was also empowered by the 1958 act to contract with universities for the development of college-level programs in those modern languages for which the commissioner believes adequate provisions are not now available in institutions in this country. Stipends may be paid under this program to individuals for study, travel, and research in developing competency in such languages. Federal funds appropriated for this purpose totaled \$32,000,000 for the four years. Each institution must match funds allocated to it for this purpose.

Grants for vocational rehabilitation constitute another type of federal subsidy, part of which at least is for educational purposes. The states administer the program. The funds are used in the rehabilitation and education of disabled persons. In providing for the education and training of eligible persons, the funds may be used to pay the costs of education, such as tuition and fees, supplies, equipment or tools needed, and the like. The purpose of the program, which was greatly expanded in 1954, is to train and educate these people so that they may be able to engage in gainful employment. Federal funds allocated in 1957-1958 amounted to \$45,800,000.

Although they relate to the land-grant colleges rather than to secondary schools, it seems appropriate to review briefly here federal subsidies for the support of these institutions and connected programs, since they

show the scope of federal participation in education in this country. Some of the institutions established on the basis of grants made in the original Morrill Act of 1862 later found themselves in financial difficulty; in 1890 the Second Morrill Act was passed. With later amendments and a supplementary act, the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, the federal government now makes small annual grants of about \$5,000,000 direct to the land-grant colleges.

Since 1887, Congress has appropriated money for the support of agricultural experiment stations, which are operated as units of the land-grant colleges. Under the various acts still in force, these grants totaled almost \$24,000,000 in 1957-1958. A corollary program is the agricultural extension service, a cooperative enterprise of the land-grant colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture. Funds allocated to these institutions for extension work amounted to slightly more than \$50,000,000 in the same year.

Since 1907, the federal government has allocated to the states or counties within which the land is located a portion of the revenues received as rents, royalties, or sale receipts from public lands of various sorts, such as forest, grazing, and mineral resources.

On occasion, the federal government has made outright grants of a noncontinuing nature to the states for specific educational purposes. For example, in 1950 Congress appropriated \$3,000,000 for allocation to the states in support of a state-by-state survey of school building facilities. To appraise the educational situation in this country and to provide information useful in solving some of our most serious educational problems, the President of the United States recommended in 1954 that each state hold a conference on education, culminating in a national conference. Congress appropriated \$1,320,000 for this purpose, \$700,000 of which was allocated to the states to pay expenses of the state conferences. Each state held one or more such conferences. The White House Conference on Education was held on November 28 to December 1, 1955. Again, we see here examples of the continuing interest of the agencies of the federal government in public education.

Utilization of surplus property. In recent years, the federal government has further assisted education in this country by making available to schools and institutions of higher learning personal and real property that is surplus. Originally these were goods, lands, and buildings unneeded following the close of the war, but now they include items that became surplus for one reason or another in the process of federal house-keeping. Each state has set up a state agency for receiving goods made available by government agencies and distributing them to approved schools and educational institutions. Lands are handled directly by the federal agency.

GRANTS TO INDIVIDUALS AND AGENCIES FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES

Under this heading may be classified a number of important federal activities in which grants of one sort or another are made to students as scholarships and benefits and to educational institutions for carrying on educational programs.

Educational grants to veterans. Undoubtedly the most extensive, far-reaching, and costly program of educational subsidies ever undertaken by the federal government is the grants to war veterans who served during the period of World War II or in the Korean conflict. About 10,000,000 men and women have received benefits under these acts, total expenditures through 1957 amounting to about \$18,700,000,000. The impact of this unprecedented contribution to the education of citizens is undoubtedly still to be seen in full.

Scholarships. Several government agencies grant fellowships to selected students in university and college. Beginning in 1948, the Atomic Energy Commission has made such grants, although in recent years most of the program for scientists has been taken over by the National Science Foundation. The Public Health Service also awards research fellowships, internships, and training grants to students interested in careers in research in medicine, public health, and allied fields.

Two new types of assistance to individual college and graduate students were made available in the National Defense Education Act of 1958. The act authorized grants to institutions of higher education for use in making loans to students. A total of \$295,000,000 was allocated to the program for the four years from 1958 to 1962, plus such additional sums as may be needed to complete commitments made to students during that period. The United States Commissioner of Education was empowered to enter into contracts with institutions whereby the federal government supplies funds to each institution for use in making loans to needy and worthy students. The institution is required to contribute a sum at least equal to one ninth of the amount granted by the government. Students approved for loans may borrow up to a maximum of \$1,000 a year, but not more than a total of \$5,000. Students who enter teaching in public elementary and secondary schools are forgiven 50 per cent of the loan and interest at the rate of 10 per cent for each year of teaching service.

A second type of assistance was the establishment of 1,000 National Defense Fellowships for the year 1958-1959 and 1,500 each year thereafter through the academic year of 1961-1962. Only graduate students are eligible for the fellowships, and they may hold one for no more than

three years of study. The fellowships carry a stipend of \$2,000 for the first year of graduate study, \$2,200 for the second year, and \$2,400 for the third. An additional allowance of \$400 is paid annually for each dependent of the holder. For each fellow studying in an institution, the federal government grants up to \$2,500 a year to be used in developing new graduate programs or expanding existing ones.

Subsidies for research. Similar to the scholarship program are grants to selected individuals and colleges and universities for carrying on research. Most of these grants are made by the National Science Foundation, the Atomic Energy Commission, or the Department of Defense.

College housing. In 1950 Congress passed the College Act, expanding it in 1955 after the Korean conflict. Loan funds of \$500,000,000 were made available to colleges to build residential facilities for students. Additional funds for this purpose have been made available from time to time since the initial authorization.

Educational exchange programs. Congress has made appropriations to the Department of State for carrying on an educational exchange program with many foreign countries. Several different types of educational activities are encompassed within this program, including opportunities for American college students, faculty staff members, and other qualified persons to study abroad and opportunities for similar nationals of foreign countries to study in this country. Technical assistance to foreign countries under various governmental programs involves educational activities in most cases, with qualified educators of this country advising ministries of education in cooperating nations on educational matters. One phase of these efforts includes interuniversity contracts, under which a number of American universities serve as counterparts to foreign institutions with exchange of Staff members for limited periods.

ESTABLISHMENT AND OPERATION OF EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

In addition to aid to education of the types described previously, the federal government itself operates a number of schools or educational institutions of various kinds.

Establishment and operation of school systems. The District of Columbia is under the control of Congress, which has final responsibility and authority over the schools of the District, and provides the basic legal structure within which they are established and operated. Money is appropriated to the District for the operation of local government agencies, including schools. The same situation exists in the Canal Zone.

With its armed forces stationed throughout the world, and with

many civilian employees working for governmental agencies outside the United States, the government establishes and operates schools for children of such personnel whenever feasible.

Also, the Atomic Energy Commission was responsible for establishing and operating schools for the children of personnel employed or stationed at its three major installations, but in time the control and administration of these schools was turned over to regular boards of education, although the government still contributes heavily to their support.

The federal government takes responsibility for the education of its wards, such as Indian children, either operating schools for their education or contracting with public schools for these services. And it has a responsibility for education in the territories of the United States, since they are under control of the federal government until they attain statehood. As a matter of fact, the national government was actually responsible for the establishment and organization of the school systems in all states that were organized as territories prior to being admitted as states.

Federal educational agencies. The federal government operates a number of educational agencies at the post-secondary level. Examples are the three service academies at West Point, Annapolis, and Colorado Springs, and the Federal Merchant Marine School. In fact, the armed services themselves provide extensive educational and technical training programs for members of the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines. In recent years, the armed services have also administered educational programs for personnel in off-duty hours. Most of this work consists of correspondence courses, those at the college level being made available through colleges and universities. Other federal agencies also provide opportunities for study, including graduate study.

LEADERSHIP AND RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

During the period of awakening interest in schools within a number of states before the Civil War educational leaders urged that Congress create a bureau in the federal government to promote the cause of education and to assist the states in developing better schools. In 1867 Congress acceded to these requests and established

... at the City of Washington a Department of Education (but without Cabinet rank) for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of

efficient school systems and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.⁴

A commissioner of education, appointed by the President, directs the agency. From 1870 until 1929, it was known as the Bureau of Education, and since then as the United States Office of Education. Until 1939 it was a part of the Department of Interior; it was then assigned to the new Federal Security Agency. In 1953 a federal Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, whose head has cabinet status, was created, and the Office of Education is now an integral part of that arm of government.

In accordance with the original act creating the Office, its functions are concerned primarily with the collection and publication of statistics and information on education in the United States and the promotion of education. In carrying out these duties, the office has these principal functions, summarized below:

Providing data and information on education. A very valuable and important service of the Office is the collection and publication of data and information on the status of education in the United States, and, on occasion, in foreign countries. Educational and research workers interested in education rely extensively on these studies for accurate information on education. Statistical data on enrollment, attendance, finances, administrative organization, and related information for alternate years are published in the *Biennial Survey of Education*. Other factual information is disseminated through bulletins, circulars, and an official magazine, *School Life*. Also, in the National Defense Education Act of 1958, Congress authorized the National Science Foundation to establish and operate a science information service, which aids in the improvement of instruction in schools and colleges.

Conducting research studies and investigations of various aspects of education. Staff members of the Office are continuously engaged in studying various educational problems of interest to the nation. The Office may also conduct or share in the conduct of surveys of various aspects of education. Beginning in 1956 Congress authorized the Office to enter into agreements with educational institutions to carry out approved research projects which are subsidized from federal funds made available to the Office. And the 1958 act allocated an additional \$18,000,000 for the period from 1958 to 1962 for use by the Office in conducting and fostering research and experimentation in the use of television, radio, motion pictures, and related media for educational purposes.

⁴ 14 Stat. 434; 20 U.S.C. 1.

Administering federal grants-in-aid. The Office administers certain grants made to the states or to public school systems for educational purposes, such as those for vocational education, building and maintenance of schools in federally affected areas, the disposal of surplus property, and most of those authorized in the National Defense Education Act of 1958. However, it is to be noted that some grants for educational activities are administered by other agencies of government, such as those for school lunch, veterans' education, and scholarships and research programs in the sciences, health, and medicine. Many educators feel that all grants to the states or to schools and institutions of higher education for educational purposes should be administered by the Office. As mentioned above, the size and extent of all federal grants to education are enormous; hence administering such programs is an important educational undertaking.

Administering exchange of students and educators with foreign countries. The Office has the responsibility of administering some phases of the educational exchange program. Presently, it has a Division of International Educational Relations to assist foreign students in gaining admission to American colleges and foreign educators in studying educational practices in this country. It also assists students and educators of this country who wish to study abroad.

Providing consultative services. The staff members of the Office include specialists in many phases of education, many of whom serve as consultants to state and local school systems on problems falling in their respective fields of specialization. Their writings, published in bulletin or pamphlet form or in official publications, state their views on educational issues and problems or summarize practices of which they approve.

Exercising leadership. An important function of most departments of the executive branch of the federal government is to provide leadership in their respective fields of activity. And so it is with the United States Office of Education. With the means at its command under federal law the Office endeavors to "promote the cause of education throughout the country." The Office may advise Congress on legislative matters relating to education; it may provide information and counsel to other agencies of government on educational activities or problems in which they may be interested; it is an official source of information on education in this country, both for our citizens and for governments or citizens of foreign countries. In numerous ways, both formal and informal, such as holding or participating in conferences and meetings, addressing educators and groups of citizens, conferring with persons concerned with educational problems, and the like, the staff of the Office contributes to educational thinking in this country. Most careful observers would agree

that its leadership has increased in recent years, and that it is a powerful influence in American education. Congress has increased the budget of the Office materially in recent years, thus permitting it to expand its activities and program.

INTERPRETATION OF CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS WITH
RESPECT TO SCHOOLING

The federal government exercises a very significant control over education in this country through the protection of citizens in their rights under the Constitution of the United States. If the acts of a state, such as a law or a regulation made pursuant to law, or the actions of a board of education under its grants of authority by the state, are deemed to be an abridgement of the rights that an individual possesses under the Constitution as a federal citizen, the aggrieved individual may bring action to protect these rights. Such a case may finally reach the Supreme Court, which will determine the constitutionality of the law or the action. If federal rights of citizenship are judged to be abridged, the Court will declare the action of the state or its subdivision unconstitutional or of no force. As we are all aware, such rulings of the Court have had a tremendous impact on educational practices and policies in this country.

Recent notable examples of the power of the federal government to control education within the states are the decisions of the Supreme Court on the segregation of students in public schools and colleges on the basis of race and color. The Court has ruled, in effect, that laws and regulations providing for such segregation are unconstitutional, and hence unenforceable. These decisions have had a profound effect on public education in this country in recent years.

Similarly, the Court has ruled that certain laws, regulations, and practices relative to religious instruction in the schools abridge freedom of religion. On the other hand, it has also ruled that payment of costs of transportation or costs of textbooks for pupils attending parochial schools is not a violation of religious freedom or the principle of separation of church and state. In two famous cases arising out of laws passed by Oregon and Nebraska during a period of patriotic fervor following World War I, the Court decided that a state cannot compel all children subject to compulsory school attendance to attend a public school, nor could a state prohibit instruction in a foreign language in parochial elementary schools.

These decisions and others on pertinent subjects show that the federal government can and does exercise a very real control over educational practices and policies within the states when the basic rights of citizens, as defined in the Constitution, are involved.

The Supreme Court itself clarified this federal responsibility in a decision rendered on September 29, 1958, on an action relating to integration in the Little Rock, Arkansas, schools (27LW4006).

It is, of course, quite true that the responsibility for public education is primarily the concern of the States, but it is equally true that such responsibilities, like all other state activities, must be exercised consistently with federal constitutional requirements as they apply to state action. The Constitution created a government dedicated to equal justice under the law.

This presentation on the role of the federal government in education has pointed out that, even though the Constitution did not delegate to it powers to establish schools and provide education for citizens, the federal government in fact does influence educational developments in this country. Many educators and citizens believe the participation of the federal government in education should increase through grants to the states for universal educational purposes.

The Functions of the State in Providing Education

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that constitutionally the states individually have full responsibility for the establishment, control, and operation of schools, with the single restriction that they must not abridge the rights of citizenship guaranteed by the federal Constitution. Education is a state function. This means that in the United States we have forty-nine systems of public education, plus three under federal control in the territories and the District of Columbia.

In any analysis of the role of the state in establishing schools, it must be kept in mind that final authority in governmental affairs rests with the people themselves. In each state, the people have adopted a constitution in which they have assigned responsibilities for education and have defined the powers of any agencies created. In some states the people made a very broad and general delegation of power to the state itself, few limitations on this power or few mandates relative to the carrying out of this authority being enacted; in other states the constitution may contain rather specific and detailed provisions relative to education, determining the structure of the educational system, defining the responsibilities of the agencies of government, and the like. Most states fall between these two extremes in defining structure and powers; hence in reality the state itself has almost unlimited authority for education. But, of course, the people may at any time alter this delegation of power or change the structure by amending the constitution, as they frequently do.

The members of the legislature, as chosen representatives of the

people, are vested with the powers granted to the state; hence it is really the legislature of the state, acting within the framework of the state constitution, that carries out the state's responsibilities for education. It determines the entire structure and organization of the state's educational system, and delegates power to the various agencies created, such as local school districts, intermediate units of control, and state departments. Local school districts are creations of the state and are subject to the authority of the state or to the people themselves, as they formulate or amend the state constitution. In actual practice in the American states, however, the legislature has established both state agencies and local school districts which have joint responsibility for the education of its citizens. This partnership between state and local agencies in the field of education is a unique arrangement in American government, not found to such an extent or so fully developed in any other exercise of governmental power.

RESPONSIBILITIES EXERCISED BY THE STATE

The authority of the state in educational matters is unquestioned; hence here we shall summarize the important functions it performs in providing schools.

Establishment of a state system of education. This is a basic responsibility vested in the state, that is, in the legislature as representatives of the people, by the constitution. As noted, some states have established the basic plan of education in the constitution itself, thus reserving this power to the people themselves, but in most states the legislature has the primary responsibility for establishing a system of schools and providing for the education of its citizens. In all states, local school districts have been created by the state for the purpose of providing schooling for the children of the district. But the state retains authority over these agencies.

Allocation of powers and duties over education to respective agencies of government. In creating school districts and state educational agencies, the state, again by constitutional or statutory law, or both, must allocate authority and responsibility to both types of governmental agencies. It defines the powers and duties of local school authorities and obviously, as a corollary, the powers of state agencies, such as the department of education. This division of powers determines the place and function of the local school district, and the extent to which it is subject to the will of the state agency.

Financial support of education. One of the most important powers of the state is determining the methods of financing schools. Within reasonable limits, the nature and quality of the educational program is

dependent on the revenues made available for the support of schools. The state controls taxation, and in prescribing the methods to be used in raising taxes for school purposes and in imposing limitations on the taxing power of local school districts, it possesses a powerful control over the educational program. Some states allow local districts a large measure of discretion in raising tax revenues for the operation of their schools; others so severely restrict this power that the school system has little leeway in fiscal independence.

Control over the program of education. As an aspect of its authority for education within the state, the legislature itself may choose to exercise a considerable measure of control over the schools. It may pass laws prescribing various phases of the program, setting school policy, defining the organization of the school, controlling the actions of teachers, and so on. In fact, a considerable portion of the school codes in most states pertains to such regulations, formulated by the state legislature itself.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STATE STRUCTURE FOR EDUCATION

The structure and organization of education in a state have a direct bearing on the nature of the educational program provided pupils. An example would be the method prescribed by the state in its early history for creating school districts or for authorizing the addition of the high school to the school program. In some states the rural school district was established as the basic unit of organization, and in many of these the districts were authorized in due time to establish a high school when certain conditions were fulfilled. This resulted in the development of many small village high schools, which persist to this day in rural sections of the country. In other states, a separate high school district was superimposed over a group of these small elementary school districts, as in Illinois, Indiana, and California, and to this day the control and operation of the high school in many instances is separated from that of the elementary school; consequently, coordination of the program from the kindergarten through grade twelve may not exist.

But most significant of all aspects of the state's educational structure is the extent to which the local school district has authority and responsibility for determining the curriculum and program of the school; the policies and regulations under which the school is administered; the organization of instruction; teaching methods; services to be provided pupils, such as health services, guidance and counseling services, psychological services, therapy, and the like; requirements for graduation, textbooks and instructional materials to be used; and many similar matters that primarily relate to the quality and nature of the educational experiences provided boys and girls.

Practices among the states vary considerably. In some, the state department of education has authority to dictate to the local districts on many of these matters, and in others, it has little authority; but the most common practice is for the state to set the general framework of the program, permitting the local school system freedom within these broad limitations to develop its own program. In some instances, the state may prescribe specific aspects of school practice in which it has a paramount interest, such as the teaching of American history, but granting a large measure of freedom in other respects.

Types of control. Probably nothing is more indicative of the degree of freedom granted the local school district than prescriptions relative to graduation from high school. Grace Wright, of the United States Office of Education, in a most informative study found that all but five states, either by state law or by regulation of the state department of education in conformity with state law, specify the subjects required for graduation from high school. Four states specify only $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ of the units of credit to be required. On the other hand, eight states prescribe a total of 10 or more units of work for graduation.

In many states, laws require that pupils study certain courses. California, for example, by statute requires that all pupils receive instruction in the Constitution of the United States, in American history, in state and local government, in manners and morals, in the dangers of the use of alcohol and narcotics, in fire prevention, in first aid, in physical education, and in driver education. Not all of these topics need to occupy a full semester's or a year's work; however, pupils must receive instruction in physical education for a full period each day during the four years of high school, and thirty class hours must be devoted to driver education.⁵

The extent to which a state may go in its efforts to control the local program of education is well illustrated by a law passed by the Ohio legislature in 1955:

Basic instruction in geography, United States history, the government of the United States, the government of the state of Ohio, local government in Ohio, the Declaration of Independence, the United States Constitution and the Constitution of the State of Ohio shall be required before pupils may participate in courses involving the study of social problems, economics, foreign affairs, United Nations, world government, socialism and communism.⁶

It seems obvious that such legislation contravenes the historic relationship of state and local units of school control; it is also an il-

⁵ Grace S. Wright, *High School Graduation Requirements Established by State Departments of Education* (U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 455, revised January, 1958; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958).

⁶ *Laws of Ohio*, 126:568.

illustration of the absurdity of attempting to operate the educational program through state action.

Controls over the local district are exercised in many other ways, especially through budgetary and financing practices. In the final analysis, the local school district can provide an educational program only to the extent that revenues are available. If the state circumscribes the local system in raising revenues, and all states do in one way or another, it automatically limits the freedom of the district in determining the kind of program to be provided. In actual practice, this is probably the most effective and far-reaching control the state exerts over the local districts it has created, although many other types of controls also exist. Another important control exercised by the state, and one often tied in with financial support is accreditation, which was discussed in Chapter 5.

Desirability of state control. Thus, even though the citizens of the respective states have created through constitutional provisions and legislative enactments both state and local agencies for education, the division of powers between these two units of government varies greatly from state to state, and the character of the state educational structure reflects different attitudes toward the respective roles of the state and local school districts in providing education for the people.

What constitutes a proper division of powers must be determined on the basis of one's value system and conceptions of government. Traditionally, we have favored a system of government that enables the people to participate as much as possible directly in the processes of government. Hence we have established local units of government and granted them a broad set of powers in carrying out the functions of government locally. The local school district is an example of this concept of government. It enables the people to decide many educational matters by direct action through the historic town meeting of the New England states or through the annual meeting of the school electors in many states, and to exercise a great deal of authority for education through elected representatives—the members of the board of education—who are often known to them personally and with whom they have intimate contact.

Historically in American education, the local school district has possessed the power to establish, control, and operate schools. The establishment of state agencies for controlling education is a more recent movement in American educational organization; hence the state departments of education in at least the older states have been granted powers only at the expense of the local units of government. This process has been stepped up, so that more and more responsibility for education has been vested in state agencies until today the local district has lost a considerable part of the autonomy it once enjoyed in many states. Many educators are dubious about this greater concentration of authority

in a central agency and believe that many states have restricted too greatly the local district while increasing the power of the state agency. On the other hand, many citizens are aware of the abject failure of some local districts to provide a good education for their boys and girls; consequently they believe that the state itself through its own agency is justified in taking greater responsibility for education so that the boys and girls—our real concern in the matter—may benefit most from one of their basic birthrights in America, the opportunity to acquire an education.

In any case, the control of the state agencies of government over education has increased materially in recent years in practically all of the states. This is true in the areas of school finance, the organizational structure of the state's system, school organization, the educational program, the qualifications of teachers, classification of pupils, provisions for children who deviate markedly from the normal, and design of the school building. In some cases the legislature itself has prescribed conditions to be met or duties to be performed by local districts; in much larger areas of responsibility it has given the state department of education or other state agencies greater control. No one questions the authority of the state to do all this; the wisdom of what it does is another matter. The partnership still exists, but the relationship has been changing over the years, and not always, it seems to us, for the good. But let us examine, in more detail, just what powers the state exercises both in its own right and through delegation to a department of education or closely related state agencies that it may establish.

THE FUNCTIONS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Much of the authority exercised by the state over the common schools is delegated to a state department of education. All states have such an agency, although the official names may vary. Its powers are extensive, and its actions are of utmost significance for education in the state.

Structure of the state department of education. The organization of the department varies considerably among the states, but all states have provided for a chief state school officer, often known as a commissioner of education or a superintendent of public instruction. Forty-five states have a state board of education of some type.⁷ The composition and authority of these boards differ among the states; in seven states the members are elected by the people; in some they are wholly or mostly ex-

⁷ Fred F. Beach and Robert F. Will, *The State and Education* (U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 23; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955), Chap. 6. Data for Alaska are based on the laws of the state upon its admission to the Union.

officio members; in others they are appointed by the governor; and there may be other variations. In nineteen states, the board appoints the chief state school officer; in four he is appointed by the governor; and in twenty-six he is elected by popular vote. The division of authority between the state board and the chief state school officer also differs greatly among the states. Usually in those instances in which the state board appoints the commissioner, he is subject to the authority of the board, which has final responsibility for carrying out the powers vested by law and constitution in the state educational agency; in the other cases the board and the chief state school officer often share responsibility.

The regulatory function of the state department. Because the state has created the local school districts, it obviously retains power over them, within the limits imposed by the constitution. The exercise of this power to control the acts of the local school system is called the regulatory function of the state department of education.⁸ These regulatory functions may be classified into the following general types:

1. Protection of the life and health of pupils. This includes the establishment of minimum standards for buildings, regulations about the operation of busses, safety requirements, fire drills, health examinations, control of communicable diseases, health examinations for teachers, and similar regulations for the well-being of pupils and teachers.

2. Compulsory attendance. At one time or another all states have enacted laws compelling children within certain specified ages to attend school. In keeping with such laws, the state defines what constitutes a school for such purposes, and establishes procedures for ensuring the attendance of children subject to the law. As a part of the exercise of this function, the state may compel the local district to maintain certain types of schools or facilities for exceptional children—the physically handicapped, the mentally retarded, and the like. It also provides for the welfare of children and youth who are seriously disturbed emotionally or are delinquent, recalcitrant, or otherwise unfit to attend the regular school. This may be an exercise of powers relating to education as well as to the protection of citizens, and agencies other than the state department of education may be involved in the care of such children and youth.

As an outgrowth of the struggle over the desegregation of schools, following the significant decision of the United States Supreme Court on May 17, 1954, several states have modified their compulsory attendance laws. South Carolina and Mississippi both repealed their compulsory attendance laws (March 9, 1955, and February 24, 1956), and school at-

⁸ Fred F. Beach, *The Functions of State Departments of Education* (U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 12; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1950), Chap. 3.

tendance is not now compulsory in those two states. In 1956, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Virginia enacted laws that suspend compulsory attendance laws for any child who is required to attend or is assigned to a school which a child of another race is attending. Alabama provided in 1957 that no child is compelled to attend an "interracial" school if his parents file an objection; Georgia enacted a law in 1958 that suspended the operation of the compulsory attendance law in public school districts "wherein the operation of the public schools by public officers of this State is discontinued." In the fall of 1958, Arkansas authorized the closing of public schools under certain conditions; this, in effect, resulted in the suspension of the compulsory attendance laws under such circumstances.

3. Assurance of minimum educational opportunities. Undoubtedly the most important regulatory functions of the state department of education relate to the character and nature of the educational program. Through a broad range of powers the state requires the local school district to conform to a large body of laws and regulations designed to assure all pupils at least a minimum program of education. Examples of the exercise of such powers include the certification of teachers; establishment of minimum salaries for teachers; regulation of tenure for teachers; prescription of textbooks to be used; issuance of courses of study and curriculum guides; accreditation of the schools on the basis of predetermined standards that cover most aspects of the total educational program; reorganization of school districts to provide more adequate districts; establishment of requirements for graduation from high school; prescription of certain subjects that must be taught, as well as the length of the school year and the school day; administration of state examinations as a basis for granting credit or additional educational privileges; and many similar controls. In fact, a large part of our school law codes relates to this aspect of regulation, and these codes run into hundreds of pages of closely printed statutes.

Another method by which many states endeavor to assure a minimum program of education for all children is through control of the revenues made available to the local district. State funds are often allocated so that each local district will have a prescribed minimum amount of money available to operate the school system. But such allocations in themselves constitute a very effective means of controlling the local school, for funds may be withheld if the local school does not conform to the prescribed regulations or laws.

Such control over the local district is also found in limitations on the issuance of bonds for school buildings. In some instances local districts are unable to build needed facilities because they are already bonded to the limits permitted by the state.

4. Conformance to American ideals. The state also considers it

desirable to regulate the educational enterprise so as to ensure as best it can the perpetuation of American ideals and beliefs. The enactment, many within recent years, of laws requiring teachers to take oaths of loyalty is an example of the exercise of this function. Procedures for dismissing teachers who are found to advocate doctrines held to be un-American have also been established in states with permanent tenure laws. Many states require local boards of education or state textbook commissions to be especially diligent in selecting only textbooks that uphold American beliefs and principles. Of a positive nature, states may require school children to take pledges of allegiance, and the schools to teach courses in American history, civics, and state government and history and to observe appropriately national holidays of a patriotic nature.

In addition to these kinds of regulatory powers, the all-pervasive power of the state is illustrated by the investigations carried out in some states in recent years by state legislative committees. These committees are granted power by the legislature to investigate the schools, usually in relation to possibilities that school personnel may have carried on subversive activities. Most students of social psychology feel that such investigations are very effective in prescribing limits within which teachers function in teaching basic American traditions, beliefs, and principles of government.

5. Economy and efficiency in expenditure of school funds. To ensure prudent use of school funds, the state has also enacted a large body of laws and issued regulations based on law that control the expenditure and safekeeping of school district funds. Purposes for which funds may be expended and procedures for making such expenditures are usually prescribed. Methods of accounting are determined by the state, bonds are required of certain school officials, and so on.

Of a similar nature are controls exercised over the expenditure of capital funds for construction of buildings, for example. In some states building plans must be approved by the state.

Operational functions of the state department of education. The state department of education itself operates some educational institutions or classes or assumes direct responsibility for certain educational agencies. Examples are state vocational or trade schools; schools for the blind, the deaf, the physically and the mentally handicapped; schools for correspondence study; state libraries; and state museums, film libraries, and related educational activities. It seems logical for the state to operate some of these agencies, but others duplicate services available in some local school systems or provide services that might better be delegated to local school agencies.

In the field of higher education, of course, the state department of

education in a number of states has direct control over the teacher-training colleges or state colleges, technical institutes and junior colleges, and similar institutions. And it may have a considerable voice, through the chief state school officer, in the control of the state university and the state agricultural and mechanical colleges.

Administrative functions of the state department of education. Historically, the principal functions of the state department of education, by which term we include the state superintendent of schools or officer of comparable title, were those of record keeping, executor of trusts, dispenser of state educational funds, and interpreter of school law. These administrative duties still constitute a major portion of the duties and responsibilities of the office.

The state department gathers data from local school systems and compiles it for the information of the citizens; it may also publish data originated within the state that will be of interest to those working in the field of education. In turn, it provides data to the United States Office of Education so that statistics on education throughout the United States can be made available.

With substantial increase in state support for education, in recent years, the state department must devote a great deal of staff time to the distribution of these funds to local districts. Regulatory control, as stated previously, is often involved in such distributions. Also, the state department usually has responsibility for disbursing revenues derived from federal land grants and, more recently, from appropriations, to the local schools. It may also exercise the trusteeship of the state over these federally granted lands, although actual management of the lands and funds may be vested in another state agency.

A very important function of the chief state school officer is to interpret school law. Usually his rulings have the effect of law unless set aside by the proper courts.

In this connection it should be pointed out that the state supreme court has the same function in protecting the citizen of a state against capricious acts of the state legislature, the state department of education, and the local school district as the federal Supreme Court has in protecting the rights of all citizens. The state courts rule on the constitutionality of the acts of all of these educational agencies, safeguarding the rights of the state citizen in terms of constitutional provisions. Similarly, it can determine the propriety of acts of the state department of education and of local school districts in terms of statutory law.

Leadership functions of state departments of education. In recent decades the leadership functions of the state department of education have emerged as the most significant and far-reaching responsibilities of the office. Although recognizing the necessity of the functions dis-

cussed in previous sections, most educators believe that the greatest contribution this state agency can make to education is the exercise of leadership for good education. In fact, most of us would prefer that the state minimize its regulatory functions, largely freeing the local school district to control and operate the educational system, and seek to advance the cause of education through leadership rather than control.

There are several aspects of leadership which state departments of education should develop:

1. Planning. Not only is vision and intelligence needed in the planning of its own program and services; the department should also bring these leadership qualities to the educational problems and issues facing the schools of the state. It should give guidance to local school staffs by clarifying major issues, defining problems, suggesting sound courses of action, and proposing methods for evaluating results.

State departments carry out this function by holding conferences, workshops, institutes, and the like; by publishing bulletins, news letters, guides, and similar materials; by addressing educational groups; by participating in conferences and meetings of appropriate lay groups; in drawing up plans of action for the information of local school staffs; and in organizing state-wide committees for formulating a program for fulfilling some objective of education. Also, the state department should be the principal spokesman for education in working with other state agencies of government, particularly the governor and the legislature.

2. Research. Leadership must be based on an accurate appraisal of the situation and on pertinent knowledge relevant to the issue. Research is therefore an essential function of the state department, which may well publish the results of research conducted by school systems, individual research workers, or other agencies.

3. Consultation. Leadership may often be best exercised through personal consultation with local school administrators, boards of education, and school staffs. Most state departments make regular visitations to local schools, and such occasions provide excellent opportunities for the exercise of leadership.⁹

4. Spokesman for education. The chief state school officer and his staff should inform citizens generally about the schools and their work—their status, problems, accomplishments, deficiencies, needs, and the like. Also, they should bring to the attention of the public as well as suggest to educators themselves desirable directions of change, advancements in educational practices, new principles and concepts that are worthy of consideration, and so on.

⁹ An interesting analysis of the effectiveness of services is to be found in A. D. Albright and George W. Hopkins, *What about Services of State Departments of Education?* (Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky Lexington: The Bureau, 1955), Vol. XXVII, No. 4.

The Responsibilities of Local School Districts

In our American educational structure the local school district is the basic unit for the establishment, control, and operation of the schools. The education of boys and girls is primarily its responsibility, and even though the state and the federal government exercise important functions, the quality and character of the educational program is still largely within its control. As teachers we know that much of the success of our efforts to provide a proper education for the youth of the community is dependent on local factors—our own competency, the vision of the board of education and its insight in defining school policy, the leadership of school administrators employed by the local board, the support given the schools by citizens generally, and the interest of parents in the education of their children.

TYPES OF LOCAL DISTRICTS

In the original states the unit for school administration grew out of the indigenous adaptation of patterns of government devised by the settlers themselves or formulated by the company or group settling the colony. In New England it was the town; in the southern colonies it was a larger area known as the county. The middle colonies made use of both patterns. As clusters of people settled various parts of the town in New England, the town government often divided the area into districts for school purposes. Thus was created the local common school district system.

The people who moved west following the Revolutionary War had three patterns of local government to guide them in establishing a structure for schools—the town, the small local school district, and the county. As a system of schools developed in the newer states these patterns became mixed in various types of local government, so that three basic kinds of local school control emerged—the common school district, the township district, and the county district. These remain to this day the basic units for local school administration.

The common school district. This is the type of local unit for school organization found in much of the United States, and is the one with which many of us are familiar, whether we attended a one-room rural school or a school in a large metropolitan city. It is a local unit of government, possessing quasi-corporate powers, created for the purpose of establishing and operating a school or schools for the education of the children and youth of the district. It is usually independent of coterminous or overlapping units of local government, such as a town or city, although in some states, such as portions of New York, including New

York City, the district is subject to the control of the city council in budgetary matters. It is governed by a board of education or group similarly designated, and usually has taxing powers and other corporate powers of government necessary to carry out its special function.

The common school district, by definition, includes a variety of district types, such as the small rural district, city, independent, consolidated, union, community, and separate high school districts. Twenty-eight states have this basic type of school district.¹⁰

The town or township school district. This local unit of school administration is usually coterminous with the town in the New England states or with the township in the midwestern states. In reality it, too, is a common school district, but is listed separately for descriptive purposes. The historic New England town included not only the settlement of colonists themselves but a considerable amount of land surrounding the town. New settlements might locate within the territory of the town, yet be physically separated from the original village; hence the town became a geographical unit of local administration that had authority for the establishment of schools. This unit of school administration is retained to this day in Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

In the Northwest Territory, surveying preceded settlement, and the township was the unit used for such purposes, usually consisting of an area six miles square, or thirty-six sections. Pioneers from New England found this tract to be a familiar and convenient unit for governmental purposes. The township also became the school district, although the school is usually independent of the township civil government. Such units of school control still constitute the basic structure in Indiana, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, and the township was often used as a unit for the establishment of high schools in Illinois, some of which still exist.

The county unit district. This unit of local school administration is found in the twelve states of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia. The county as a unit of government was well established in the South, and it became the unit for school control in that region, as well as in New Mexico and Utah. The unit is usually coterminous with the civil county, although this is not always true in Virginia and Utah. In a few other states, the county is also used to a

¹⁰ Committee for the White House Conference on Education, *A Statistical Survey of School District Organization in the United States, 1954-1955* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955), p. 7. Information on Alaska based on statutory laws that took effect when it was admitted to the Union.

limited extent as a unit for establishing certain types of schools. The county as the basic unit for school administration is not to be confused with the county serving as an intermediate type of school district. This function will be discussed later.

The junior college district. Of interest to secondary school educators is the junior college, now frequently called the community college, since many people believe that it is essentially a part of the common school system, representing an extension of secondary education. In all the thirty-two states authorizing public junior colleges, the legislation provides for the establishment of junior college districts.¹¹ In some states the basic common school district also constitutes the junior college district, so that one unit of control has authority for education from the kindergarten through the fourteenth grade of schooling. But in many of the states, the junior college district is a separate corporate entity, not subject to the direct control of the common school district. It may be coterminous with that district, and even have the same governing board, yet be a separate governmental unit. Usually, however, it encompasses several common school districts or even county units, such as in Mississippi and Texas, or it may be a unit with boundaries distinct from any other school unit. In such cases, the junior college is usually operated as a distinct and separate unit of education, often, unfortunately, making little attempt to integrate its program with that of the contributory common schools.

FUNCTIONS OF THE LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT

From all that has been said previously, it is obvious that the primary function of the local school administrative unit is to establish, control, and operate a school or schools for the education of children and youth within the framework of authority delegated to the district by the people themselves in the constitution or by the legislature in statutory law. This is, in fact, the only function of a school district; thus if it does not establish and operate schools it has no reason for existing. In performing this basic function, the local school district, through its governing body, the board of education or a similar group, has the following responsibilities, within limitations imposed by law or regulations made pursuant to law by appropriate state agencies:

It employs the necessary personnel for operating the schools. This includes the superintendent (except in rural districts), teachers, supervisors, principals, members of a central administrative staff, custodians,

¹¹ Beach and Will, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

bus drivers, maintenance workers, food service workers, nurses, doctors, psychologists, and other such specialized personnel. By requiring that they hold a state certificate, the state often restricts the local district in its choice of people that can be employed.

It determines the location of school buildings and constructs buildings. This includes not only buildings in which pupils may receive instruction, but possibly garages, office buildings, supply depots, clinics, stadiums, recreational areas, camp sites, and the like. Again, the state often prescribes standards that such buildings and facilities must meet, and in some states must approve building plans.

It equips the buildings and decides on the type and amount of equipment that shall be made available.

It provides supplies, books, and the like for use in carrying out the educational program. In some states, these purchases have to have the approval of a state agency.

It determines the organization of the school system. This includes decisions about the classification of pupils and the assignment of grade levels to particular schools. The district structure or state law may limit possibilities in this regard.

It assigns personnel to particular jobs.

It determines the program of instruction. This includes the selection of courses and programs to be offered, approval of extracurricular activities to be sponsored, definition of requirements for graduation, and actions on a large number of related matters. State regulations, accreditation standards, and similar restraints exercised by state agencies limit local control over such matters.

It defines policies for the operation of the school system.

It operates a school bus system.

It prepares a budget for school revenues and expenditures, takes the necessary legal steps to raise tax funds, and administers the expenditure of school funds. Powers to raise and spend money are drastically controlled by state laws.

It enforces compulsory school attendance laws.

It operates service departments that enable the school to carry out its responsibilities for the education of boys and girls, such as food service, health service, psychological service, library service, instructional materials center, and the like.

It prepares proposals for issuance of bonds for capital outlays, and presents the proposals to the voters for decision. Proposals must comply with state law on bonded indebtedness and the like.

It administers a record system for accounting for pupils.

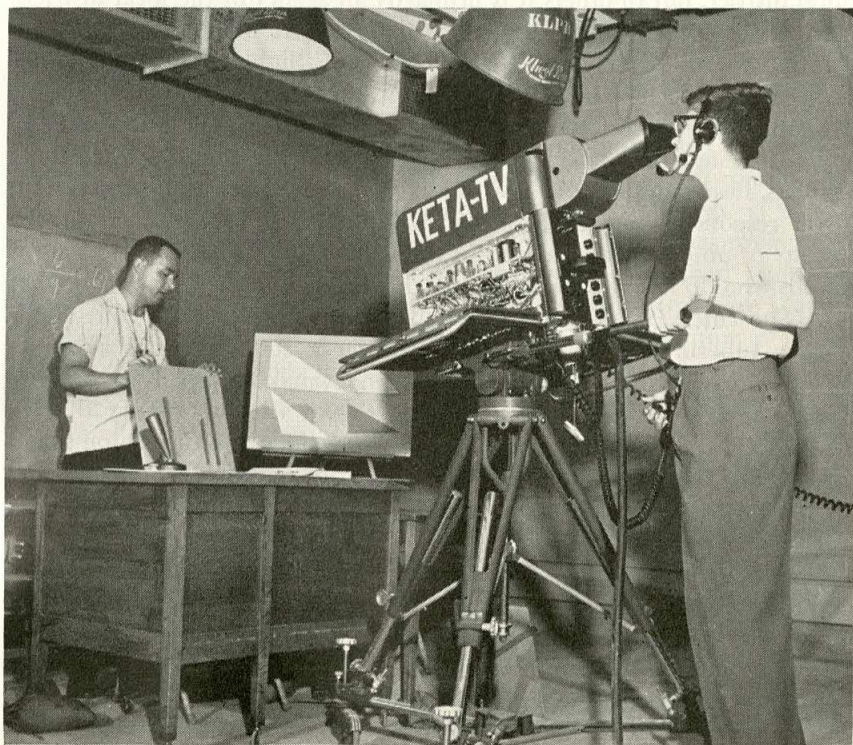
It determines eligibility of individuals to attend school, such as the

mentally or physically defective, the incorrigible, the delinquent, and so on. Again, state law or regulations may set prescriptions with regard to school attendance of such persons.

It annexes additional territory in accordance with law.

It promulgates regulations for the administration and management of the schools. This would include numerous types of actions necessary for the efficient operation of the school system.

In some cases these responsibilities for the establishment, control, and operation of the school may be carried out by the governing body of the district itself, but many are performed by the authorized employees of the district, headed by a superintendent of schools, who is the executive officer of the board of education. A simple listing, like the one above, of the responsibilities of the local school district, even though it must operate within limitations imposed by the state, is ample evidence of the importance of the unit in the educational structure of America.



The Local School District Has Responsibility for Planning the Program of Instruction. Some local school districts operate television stations for use in enriching the curriculum. (Courtesy of the Oklahoma City Public Schools.)

The Intermediate Unit of School Administration

Still another unit of administration in the educational structure of this country—the intermediate school unit—will be examined briefly. Such a unit is found in all of the states, except the twelve states organized as county unit systems and Alaska, Delaware, and Nevada, which have so few local districts that the need for an intermediate unit does not exist. In twenty-seven states, the county constitutes the intermediate unit and in seven others it is a supervisory union or supervisory district. In this connection, the county as an intermediate unit should not be confused with the county as a basic unit of local school administration, although the distinction between the two is not sharp in some states.

The intermediate unit stands between the state and the local unit. In some states it functions as an arm of the state in the control of the local district, but in others it is primarily an agency of the local districts, performing some essential functions for them. It has no direct responsibility for establishing and operating schools, but exercises supervisory functions as specified by law over the local school systems, performs service functions authorized by law, and acts as an agent of the state in collecting statistical information, distributing state funds to the school systems, inspecting schools, and the like. In some states it also has certain fiscal responsibilities, such as levying a uniform tax throughout the county or union for the support of the schools and paying the tuition for pupils who do not reside in a district maintaining a high school.

The chief executive officer of the county intermediate unit is the county superintendent of schools. In thirteen states there is a county board of education, which serves as a policy-making or advisory group for the county superintendent. In states with the supervisory district, the head of the intermediate unit is known as the district or union superintendent. Usually a union board of education, in some cases composed of the boards of the local districts included in the union, serves with the superintendent.

In some states, such as California, Iowa, and Pennsylvania, the intermediate unit plays a significant role in educational administration, particularly in providing services for local school systems that they might be unable to furnish or that would be uneconomical or unwise for them to supply. Examples are school transportation services, curriculum consultant services, guidance and personnel services, health services, programs for exceptional children, provision of teaching resources, cooperative purchasing of materials, and programs for in-service education.

The Private or Independent Secondary School

In any analysis of educational structure in this country attention should be given to the private school, for it constitutes an important element in our system of education. In point of historical development, the nonpublic school preceded the public school as the agency for providing education. But as our young country defined more clearly the basic concepts of democracy that now characterize our society, church and state were fully separated in function, and since education was regarded as a necessary component of democratic government, public schools were universally established to serve all of the children. But the citizen has always been granted by law or court decision the right to choose whether his child would attend the public school provided and supported by the state, or a private school approved by the state, but not supported or operated by public agencies.

Since the education of children is of basic concern to the citizens of the state, state laws provide for the protection of the young and the safeguarding of their welfare. The state has the authority, indeed the obligation, to regulate all educational agencies that are established to serve the same function as its own system of public schools. Therefore, private schools may accept pupils during their period of compulsory attendance only if the schools conform to minimum standards set by the state and meet the approval of the state. Moreover, in approving the school, the state insists that it conform to certain prescribed standards with respect to program, facilities, and the like so that pupils are assured an education that fulfills the state's conception of a minimum program necessary for its citizens. Although the state is most concerned about the education of the young, it usually exercises some control over all private educational agencies and institutions, such as colleges, universities, trade schools, and institutes, primarily, however, to protect the citizen and to promote his welfare.

Private schools may be of the following types: parochial schools, established and operated by religious organizations; independent schools, established and operated by a nonprofit corporate body chartered by the state; proprietary schools, established and operated by an individual, or possibly by a group.

The nonpublic school serves important functions in our society in addition, of course, to that of educating pupils in an acceptable manner: it provides types of instruction not offered in the public school, such as sectarian religious instruction, military training, specialized work in the arts, or work experience; it provides services not made available in the

public schools, including boarding facilities, psychological services, and special programs or care for pupils with exceptional needs; it experiments with practices, procedures, offerings, and services of the school, such as the work carried on in the experimental and laboratory schools of teacher-education institutions; and it offers a parallel educational facility for children whose parents for one reason or another do not wish them to attend the public school or who regard the program of a particular nonpublic school as more suitable for the pupil than that of the public school.

Even though the nonpublic school is a fully accepted and important part of the educational structure of this nation, several significant issues grow out of the existence of such a parallel school facility:

(1) Should public funds be used to support private schools or to reimburse parents of pupils attending these schools for certain items of expense, such as textbooks, transportation to and from school, lunches, health services, and the like? This issue has arisen in connection with efforts to secure federal grants for the support of schools and with legislative enactments in some states providing for the use of state funds in support of education.

(2) To what extent do pupils enrolled in nonpublic schools really attain the basic objectives of education designed to educate for effective citizenship in a democratic society?

(3) Does the existence of a system of nonpublic schools parallel with the public schools weaken both systems of schools, so that in the long run it is the pupils themselves who suffer from a division of efforts among citizens in order to support two types of school systems? The resources of a community may be so limited in terms of need that neither group of pupils enjoys the best in education the community could provide in one united effort.

(4) Is it feasible and desirable in a democracy for a public school to provide the variety of programs and services desirable for or desired by all children and youth?

Obviously, we shall continue to have nonpublic schools in this country; hence we who are primarily interested in the best all-round development of all youth will want to insist that both systems of schools be as strong and effective as possible in terms of our concept of the basic purposes of education. Our stake in public education as a great bulwark of democracy should impel us to make efforts to develop the best system of public schools possible, so that every child, regardless of parentage, race, religion, economic status of his parents, or locale of residence has the opportunity to acquire a good education. Yet, consistent with our democratic principles, we must safeguard and respect the rights of the

individual citizen to choose which type of education he desires for his child, and assure that good nonpublic schools are available for the pupil who chooses that type of school.

Improvement of the Educational Structure for Secondary Education

Several very important issues grow out of the present structure and organization for education, particularly with reference to secondary education. As secondary educators we should be alert to these problems and conditions and direct our efforts toward solving them satisfactorily.

1. How can we have as large a measure of local control as possible over education, yet assure every child the opportunity of attending a good school, efficiently organized and operated? This seems to us to be one of the most crucial educational issues of the day. Citizens throughout America believe that local control of the schools has been a major factor in the development of the great American school system. It has been primarily through the initiative and action of citizens in communities throughout this country that we have hammered out the structure, pattern, and program of the American public school; it has not been created *de novo* by the actions of state legislatures or the national Congress. The essence of the school—the educational program itself—has been developed and refined out of the discussions, debates, and appraisals that took place in town meetings, school board meetings, community meetings, and “street corner” arguments in tens of thousands of communities throughout America. Most of us treasure this freedom of local action highly and want to see it preserved in the organizational pattern.

Yet the state and even the federal government have been encroaching on local prerogatives, secretly at times and openly at others, snipping away at authority that originally rested with the local district. All of this is done in the name of efficiency, order, and even advancement, and with the avowed purpose of protecting children or promoting their welfare. Obviously, the state does need to safeguard children and to take steps to ensure their well-being and, in this case, proper education, but history seems to support a principle that in the long run, the welfare of children will best be served if the local school district has the fullest possible measure of authority and responsibility to determine the character and nature of the educational program made available to the children of its inhabitants.

A sound and reasonable approach to this problem is at issue in the matter of federal aid for the support of schools, in the exercise of regulatory powers by the state, and in state financial support for local school districts.

2. How can we best finance public education and make available

the funds needed to provide a good education for all children and youth? This, too, is a critical problem today. Many local school districts are hard-pressed to raise enough revenues to operate a school system, much less provide the kind of program they ought to provide for their children. Yet The Committee for the White House Conference on Education flatly stated in its report to the President of the United States:

In view of the recommendations of this Committee concerning the objectives of education, teachers, and building, it seems obvious that within the next decade the dollars spent on education in this nation should be approximately doubled.¹²

How can school systems throughout the United States meet this need for more funds in the years ahead? Presently, schools are financed principally by means of bond issues and tax revenues, although a small amount of money may accrue from the income from permanent endowments, such as the land grants made by the federal government, license fees, fines, and miscellaneous sources of this sort.¹³ Receipts from bond issues are used only for the construction of new buildings and for similar capital outlays. But with the tidal wave of additional pupils already enrolling in our schools and still more to come (see Chapter 2), many school districts are, or soon will be, unable to issue enough bonds to build the number of school buildings needed. In some states, the state itself is providing financial assistance to local districts for buildings, but the problem is acute in many localities, even in these states, and especially in states without state building programs.

The sources of revenue for current operation of the schools in 1955-1956 were as follows: ¹⁴

Local	53.9%
Intermediate	1.8
State	39.5
Federal	4.6
Other	0.2

Many specialists in school finance believe that local tax sources are already heavily burdened with tax levies for the support of education,

¹² The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, *A Report to the President* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), pp. 6-7.

¹³ For a detailed analysis of methods used to support schools, see Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert Munse, *Public School Finance Programs of the United States* (U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 22; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955) and National Citizens Commission for Public Schools, *How Do We Pay for Our Schools?* (New York: The Commission, 1954).

¹⁴ Samuel Schloss and Carol Joy Hobson, *Statistical Summary of State School Systems: 1955-1956* (Advance Report, based on Chapter 2 of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1954-1956*, Circular No. 543; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1958), Table 3.

although wide variation among local districts exists. If this view is generally valid, then the only major sources available for obtaining additional revenues for the support of schools are the state and federal governments. It is more feasible for these two units of government to raise revenues through a diversified system of taxation than for the local school district, and they can levy taxes on income and wealth at the source of production. But regardless of the method used to raise revenues, the bald fact is that the American people will have to raise more money for schools, relatively, than they have in the past if they want to provide good schools for their children and youth.¹⁵

3. How large should a high school be to enable it to provide the best program of secondary education possible? Some high schools in this country are, undoubtedly, too large and others are too small. What constitutes an optimum size no one can say with certainty, but almost everyone who surveys the educational scene in this country is sure that the schools at each end of the distribution in size are not in a position to offer the best program possible.¹⁶

The distribution of public secondary schools in the United States according to enrollment in 1951-1952 is shown in Table 44.

Most of us would readily agree that the 7,117 secondary schools, and this includes junior high schools classed as secondary, with less than 100 pupils enrolled very likely do not offer an adequate educational program for their pupils. How much larger the high school should be to be a good school we are unable to say, for no definitive research on the subject is available. Too, schools vary so much in quality that many smaller schools probably offer a better program than do some that are larger. Nevertheless, many boys and girls in the United States are denied the opportunity to obtain a good education simply because their high school is too small. Widespread efforts are being made to reorganize school districts into larger units in those states that now have many small, inefficient units. The Committee for the White House Conference on Education felt so strongly on that matter that it recommended that the American people "consider measures to deny funds, other than local, to districts which do not, after a reasonable time, organize on an efficient basis."¹⁷ The committee recommended that a school district should have a total of "at least 1,200 pupils and 40 teachers" as a minimum and that

¹⁵ Associated Public School Systems, *Does Money Make a Difference?* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958).

¹⁶ For summaries of some of the literature on the subject, see A. Hugh Livingston, "Is There an Optimum Size High School?" *Progressive Education*, 33:156-159 (September, 1956), and Maurice L. Hartung, "Is There an Optimum Size for a High School?" *School Review*, 61:68-72 (February, 1953).

¹⁷ The Committee for the White House Conference on Education, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

TABLE 44

Size of Public Secondary Schools in the United States,
1951-1952

ENROLLMENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
5,000 or more	5	—
2,500-4,999	97	0.4
1,000-2,499	1,536	6.5
500-999	2,757	11.6
300-499	3,106	13.1
200-299	3,103	13.0
100-199	6,025	25.4
75-99	2,086	8.8
50-74	2,311	9.7
25-49	1,896	8.0
10-24	640	2.7
1-9	184	0.8
	<u>23,746</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Source: U.S. Office of Education, "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools: 1951-1952," Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950-1952* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954), Table D.

"gains in efficiency and economy can be expected until approximately 10,000 pupils are included in the district."¹⁸

James B. Conant, president emeritus of Harvard University, who conducted an extensive study of the American high school during the period of 1957-1959, has concluded that a high school should have at least 100 pupils in the graduating class to be of sufficient size to offer the kind of diversified curriculum needed to serve the needs of all pupils and the needs of the nation.¹⁹

At the other end of the scale are the many people who believe that the quality of education in very large city high schools suffers also—this time because of bigness. Some authorities venture the opinion that in terms of present practice, high schools of over 2,000 pupils find it increasingly difficult to offer the kind of total program that provides the best education possible for boys and girls.

If the state is so concerned about the welfare of children to engage in the regulatory practices it now does, it surely ought to insist that youth have the privilege of attending secondary schools that at least

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

¹⁹ James B. Conant, *The American High School—A First Report* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959).

have the potentialities of offering the kind of program that the state itself has indicated is desirable.

4. What type of educational structure is most conducive to the development of a well-integrated program of education? In some states, the district structure of educational organization makes it difficult to develop a completely integrated program of education from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. For example, in such states as California and Illinois elementary schools are often under the control of one board of education and the high school is under another independent board. If the community has a junior college it is usually under yet a third board. The high school district usually includes several elementary school districts, and the junior college district may include additional territory. Thus the possibilities of developing an integrated, unitary program of education for children and youth are restricted by the very nature of the structural organization. This particular difficulty is illustrated by the fact that the elementary school includes grades 7 and 8 and the high school grade 9; hence it is impossible to organize a junior high school that encompassed grades 7 through 9.

In other states—Nebraska is one—the elementary schools serving rural areas are operated by independent boards of education. Upon completion of grade 8 the child enters a high school operated by a city school district. The two levels of education cannot be fully integrated unless the state department of education effects integration through prescription and control at both levels.

The movement to reorganize local school districts into more efficient units of organization would reduce the problem of inarticulation due to structural organization.

This chapter has analyzed the organizational pattern for education in the United States, an important area of study in developing the professional competency of secondary school teachers. Our work as teachers must be carried on within an administrative framework, and the nature of the organization for schools has a significant bearing on the discharge of our responsibilities as well as on the kind of program of education we may offer boys and girls. If the structural pattern is not conducive to the development of the best educational program possible, as teachers we should lead in promoting a better organization.

For Further Study

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Organization and Administration of the Secondary School

To educate its young members properly, a society must establish a system of schools and organize and administer them so that they may contribute most efficiently to the attainment of accepted educational goals. The character and quality of the plan of organization and the nature of the administration have a significant relationship to the kind of education made available for boys and girls.

The previous chapter discussed the legal structure within which schools are established and organized in the United States; this chapter will consider the methods by which school systems are organized and the nature of administrative processes so that teachers in the secondary schools may have a better understanding of the institution in which they serve.

Organization of the American School System

The system of education in the United States is essentially a unitary organization comprising a continuous program of schooling from the nursery school through the graduate level of the university. Pupils satisfactorily completing one level of schooling normally may progress to the next without interruption or restrictions. The college or university at both undergraduate and graduate levels set entrance requirements for admission, but these are in terms of specified units of work at the secondary school level or of abilities that the individual student must possess; they do not operate to exclude from college, in groups, pupils who have attended certain types of secondary schools.

The student may better understand and appreciate the significance

of this ladder system by recalling the educational structure existing in European countries and described in Part Three. In these nations, the program of education is sharply differentiated for various groups of pupils, and admission to some or all secondary schools is highly selective. Only a small proportion of the pupils are permitted, on the basis of rigid examinations, to enter the academic secondary school, and graduates of this type of school in general are the only ones eligible to enter college; however, England permits certain other pupils to earn their way into college and Russia provides a variety of opportunities for its youth population, beginning with the secondary school. But the unselected pupils find themselves shunted into special types of school, or forced to terminate their formal academic schooling at the end of the elementary school period.

THE VERTICAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL

Essential to the unitary system of educational organization is the vertical organization of the instructional program so that the education of pupils proceeds systematically and progressively.

The graded system. Basic to the present organization of the school system is the graded scheme of education. We take the plan of school grades for granted, possibly without recognizing that this procedure is only about a century old. Although we had levels of schooling in the early American schools, such as the reading and writing and dame schools and later the primary and grammar schools at the elementary level, and secondary schools, such as the Latin grammar school, the academy, and finally the high school, these schools were not organized by grades, and progression through the schools was not a graduated process. A teacher simply taught a group of pupils, assigning them lessons at their respective levels of achievement. If the group got too large, an assistant to the master was added or a new school was started. This same arrangement applied at the college level; in fact, until 1766 one professor at Harvard taught to a class of students all subjects included in the program.¹

The graded system, such as we know it today, was first introduced in 1847 in the Boston schools, under the direction of John D. Philbrick. The plan was patterned after the German schools, which at that time had become models for education throughout much of the Western World. The graded system enabled the teacher to work with a group of pupils of similar levels of attainment and potentialities, and to specialize

¹ Frank F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System* (U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1916, No. 8; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1916), p. 9.

in the work of that grade level. Its applicability to the high school is evident. A parallel development in the German states was compulsory school attendance, usually set at eight years, but universally terminating with confirmation and communion by the church. Thus the period of years devoted to elementary education was originally based on practices of the church.² Confirmation was associated with the attainment of puberty. Here, too, German practice established the pattern for American schools—eight years of elementary education.

Types of school organization. As the graded system became well established in the latter part of the nineteenth century and the public high school was accepted as a part of the common school system, the elementary school usually consisted of eight grades and the secondary school of four grades. Throughout America the eight-four plan of school organization became the standard type of organization and it still dom-

Grade	Age	K8-4	K6-3-3	K6-2-4	K6-6	K6-4-4
14	19					
13	18					COMMUNITY COLLEGE (Grades 11-14)
12	17	HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 9-12)	SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 10-12)	HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 9-12)	HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-12)	
11	16					
10	15					
9	14		JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-9)	Divided or Undivided	Divided or Undivided	HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-10)
8	13					
7	12					
6	11	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-8)	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-8)	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-8)	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-8)	JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 7-8)
5	10					
4	9					
3	8					
2	7					
1	6					
K	5					
			ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)
			ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Grades K-6)

Figure 20. Methods of Organizing the School System for Instructional Purposes.

² *Ibid.*, p. 38.

inates American educational practice. But during the last fifty years considerable experimentation in the vertical organization of the schools has taken place, and today three basic plans are widely used and several others are to be found throughout the country. Figure 20 illustrates five of these plans. It should be noted that nursery schools could be added as the beginning grade of any of the plans, and that institutions of higher education belong at the top of the scale in all of these arrangements.

One factor complicating the organization of the school is the legal separation of the high school and elementary school districts, as is true in some sections of Illinois, California, New York, and Indiana, for example. In such instances, statutory law usually defines the grades allocated to the elementary and secondary levels, and organization must proceed within these restrictions. Usually the division is at the eighth grade; if a junior high is organized, it is done by the elementary school district and includes only grades 7 and 8.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The eight-four plan of organization had scarcely become well established in this country before widespread dissatisfaction with it was voiced. As early as 1888, Charles W. Eliot, the famous president of Harvard University, assailed the plan, maintaining that too long a period was being devoted to elementary education, with the result that students were older than was desirable by the time they entered college; moreover, he insisted that they were not adequately prepared for college.³ He continued to agitate the matter and elicited considerable support from other college presidents, as well as from some public school people. This dissatisfaction with the program of the secondary school in general led to the appointment of the famous Committee on Secondary School Studies, better known as the Committee of Ten, in 1892. This committee recommended, among other things, that some high school subjects be introduced into the last two years of the elementary school. During the next twenty years, three additional committees of national standing studied the matter, along with related questions of school-college relations and the function of the high school in the total program of education (see Chapter 4).

The Committee of Fifteen, a parallel group concerned with elementary education, recommended in 1895 that the elementary school

³ Charles W. Eliot, "Can School Programmes Be Shortened and Enriched?" in National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1888* (U.S. Bureau of Education, Circular No. 6, 1888; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1888), pp. 101-118.

retain its eight-year program but introduce some advanced courses in the last two grades. The Committee on Six-Year Courses, as its name indicates, dealt specifically with the entire subject. It strongly urged that the elementary school be reduced to six years and that the secondary school include grades 7 and 8 and thus become a six-year school. In reports submitted in 1907, 1908, and 1909, this committee presented plans for such an organization. The 1909 report contains brief accounts of developments of this kind already under way in city school systems. The Committee on Economy of Time in Education (1909, 1911, and 1913) added to the growing demand for reorganization of the school system. It was the last of these reports that specifically recommended the organization of a junior and senior high school. President William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago and one of his brilliant young faculty members in the Department of Education, John Dewey, had also joined in the clamor for reorganization of the school program.⁴ Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, was also in this group.

The principal arguments advanced in favor of a downward extension of secondary education were these: (1) needless repetitions of educational experiences existed in the eight-four plan, so that time was wasted and as a result pupils suffered in their development. The Kansas City (Missouri) schools had long used a seven-four plan, and studies made at the time showed that the educational results compared favorably with schools adhering to the eight-four plan; (2) high school graduates entering college were inferior in attainments to comparable students in Europe; (3) the eight-four plan was not psychologically sound, for many pupils in the upper two grades had already reached adolescence, and grouping them with younger children was not appropriate for either their educational or their social development; and (4) only a small proportion of the pupils entered the high school, it being convenient for them to discontinue their schooling at the end of the eighth grade.

In due time reorganization did take place. Following the turn of the century, a number of school systems initiated various types of changes in organization, but the establishment of a junior high school as such is usually credited to Berkeley (California) and Columbus (Ohio), both in the year 1910. They organized grades 7, 8, and 9 into a separate "introductory" high school or intermediate school. The programs of these two systems became models for the development of this new secondary school, and information about their programs was widely disseminated among the educators of the country.⁵

⁴ William Rainey Harper, "The High School of the Future," and John Dewey, "Shortening the Years of the Elementary School," *School Review*, 11:1-3 and 17-20 (January, 1903).

⁵ Bunker, *op. cit.*

It was a fortunate time for such a development, because not only did it satisfy the demands for a downward extension of secondary education; in many cities it provided a happy solution to the problem of providing facilities for a rapidly expanding school population. Thus theory and practicality combined to foster the rapid expansion of the junior high school movement during the ensuing two decades. Leonard V. Koos⁶ and Thomas H. Briggs,⁷ two of America's foremost authorities on secondary education, provided a theory and rationale, and the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association formulated curriculum plans⁸ for the new institution.

THE PLACE AND UNIQUE FUNCTION OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The junior high school movement has developed rapidly in this country (Table 45, page 715), particularly during the 1920-1930 decade, but not without criticism. Many thoughtful educators have felt that the school has failed to live up to its promise and has fallen considerably short of fulfilling its real potentialities.⁹ In plan, program, and policies, it truly became a "junior" to the senior high school, usually aping its prestigious sister institution in its practices and point of view. Many charged that it failed to develop a unique and appropriate program for young adolescents, instead, being content to follow the lead of the senior school, and, indeed, being subservient to it. Since it was created to provide the best education possible for a particular group of pupils— young adolescents—it was the hope of many theorists that it would develop a distinctive program, one designed especially to serve the needs of its student body; actually it merely installed the design of the senior high school program and imitated its policies and practices.

These shortcomings may be explained in several ways: there was no body of practical experience in developing a unique program for young boys and girls; teachers or administrators had not been especially trained for service in the school; and the developmental characteristics and needs of youngsters twelve to fourteen years of age were not understood. Moreover, the American high school was rapidly emerging as the great institution of public education in the Western world and it earned a place of

⁶ Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1920).

⁷ Thomas H. Briggs, *The Junior High School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920).

⁸ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *The Junior High School Curriculum* (Fifth Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1927).

⁹ Walter H. Gaumnitz (comp.), *Strengths and Weaknesses of the Junior High School* (Report of the National Conference on Junior High Schools, U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 441; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955).

great prestige and acclaim among citizens generally. So, it seemed, what could be better for the junior high school than to imitate its famous partner in the business of educating youth? The personnel of the junior high school were usually trained in the same practices as high school teachers and administrators, and a staff position in the junior high school was often regarded as lower in rank than one in the senior or four-year high school.

But gradually the situation has been changed, so that today the junior high school is rapidly coming into its own as a unique part of the total program of education. Confidence in the future of the junior high school is high, and it is finally gaining status and prestige in its own right. A single salary schedule for teachers has enabled the school to attract those who are better prepared teachers and who are not apologetic about their position. Teacher-education institutions have developed special programs of preparation for those wishing to serve in the school; national associations, such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the United States Office of Education have been very active in giving direction and leadership to the movement; and many state departments of education have worked with local schools in the development of strong programs for the junior high schools.

But most significant of all has been the fact that the teachers and administrative personnel responsible for the program of the school have at long last been actively engaged in designing a program of education that will best serve the unique functions of the junior high school and contribute to the wholesome development of young adolescents. True, the school must fulfill its proper role in our unitary plan of education, but it also has unique functions to serve, and mere imitation of the senior high school is not the sound way to design the needed program. Examples of developments in program planning that have aroused a new enthusiasm for the junior high school are core programs; exploratory courses; special provisions for exceptional children, particularly the gifted; guidance programs; and improved methods of teaching, emphasizing problem-solving approaches.

The objectives or goals of education which the junior high school should seek to attain are, of course, the same basic ones that govern the entire secondary school (see Chapter 6). But the junior high school, in striving to serve these ends of education, has several unique functions to fulfill. These do not contravene the basic objectives of education, but serve as a framework within which learning experiences for the achievement of goals should be carried on. Briefly stated, these functions are as follows:

1. To bring together a group of youngsters who are approaching adolescence or are in early adolescence in order to provide the kinds of



The Modern Junior High School Provides a Rich Variety of Learning Experiences for Its Pupils. Homemaking courses are common in most schools, as are courses in industrial arts, physical education, music, and art. (Courtesy of the Millard Lefler Junior High School, Lincoln, Nebraska.)

learning experiences and an intellectual, social, and emotional climate in a school that will be most conducive to the wholesome development, intellectually, physically, socially, and emotionally, of that particular age group.

2. To enable its pupils to explore interests, to develop new ones, and to test out and develop their aptitudes and capacities in a variety of areas of study, avocational interests, and occupations.

3. To evaluate critically the development of the pupil to make sure that he is attaining desirable levels of growth in all important aspects of personality and character, and to develop a plan for rectifying any shortcomings in all-round growth that would be detrimental to the future happiness and success of the pupil.

4. To help young, immature students acquire the basic knowledge and skills, the study skills, methods of investigation, work habits, and standards for judging attainment necessary for pursuing the more rigorous, more exacting, and more penetrating study that characterizes the senior high school.

5. To provide a program of guidance and counseling that will enable every pupil to make wise choices for his future activities both in school and out, and will assist him in solving the problems that plague him as he attains maturity.

This, then, is the new star in our educational stellar system—one that promises to shine brightly in the future.

THE TWO-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The most recent figures available show that 19.4 per cent of the junior high schools consisted of grades 7 and 8 only; another 1.8 per cent were composed of grades 8 and 9. Little attention has been given to this type of school, even though it is the predominate type of junior high school in Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Oregon, and Wyoming.¹⁰

Many of the two-year junior high schools are planned at the outset to be that kind of school; others, such as those in Illinois, are restricted by law to grades 7 and 8; but a large proportion have become two-year schools because of external factors: crowded buildings; or lack of a building at all, so that these two grades are housed in an elementary school building; and so on.

The purposes and function of this school do not differ from those of the regular junior high school, and its program is usually quite similar to the program of that school, unless it is handicapped by lack of facilities when it is housed in an elementary school building. Some authorities see certain advantages in this two-year unit: it makes for a more homogeneous group in terms of physical and social development; it often is a smaller school, and hence can develop closer pupil-staff relationships; it avoids some of the pressures and problems of a more complex organization; and it permits pupils to have four years of senior

¹⁰ Walter H. Gaumnitz and committee, *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis* (U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 21; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954), p. 22.

Ellsworth Tompkins and Virginia Roe, "The Two-Year Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 230), 41: 27-44 (September, 1957).

high school, thus enabling that school to develop a better-integrated, more comprehensive program in mathematics and foreign languages, for example.

On the other hand, the two-year unit has certain shortcomings: since it is smaller, as a rule, and often is the result of a local building problem, it may lack facilities for offering a good program of education, particularly in the fields of homemaking, industrial arts, physical education, music, and science. Also, its program of activities is usually much more limited. But most serious of all is the likelihood that the school will be relegated to a subordinate position, not only in the minds of the public but in the minds of its pupils and teachers as well. Such a school tends to become regarded as just a way station on the road to the big city—the high school—with few really much concerned about what it does or about its program. Obviously, this is not likely to occur when the school is the top unit of an elementary school system, as it is in many California and Illinois situations.

THE SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

A third type of reorganized secondary school is the six-year school. It may be an undivided school of grades 7 through 12 or a joint junior-senior high school. In the former plan, the school is administered as a single unit and no break or distinction occurs during the program; in the latter, the school is divided, both in program and in administration, into two subdivisions, although the lines of demarcation are not always sharp. It may be a two-four or a three-three plan, but the six-year program is housed as a unit.

The six-year school is found more frequently in the smaller school systems, since it makes for greater efficiency in using facilities and staff, and enables the community to provide a better program for grades 7 through 12 than would be true if separate schools were maintained or if the two lower grades were retained in the elementary school. This type of school is also to be found in some larger cities, often serving fringe population areas, at least until that section of the city grows enough to justify the building of separate units. The school is accepted as a desirable development in small communities where it would be inexpedient to maintain two small separate units, or a four-year high school would be too small to be efficient. But many educators question the wisdom of establishing such a school in larger cities where separate junior and senior high schools could be maintained. Experience shows that it is difficult to fulfill adequately the functions enumerated previously for the junior high school when it is the lower unit of a six-year school, and

many parents and teachers believe it is unwise to include younger adolescents in a student body dominated by senior high school pupils.¹¹

THE EIGHT-YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAM

The junior college, or community college as it is now generally designated, originated in 1902. Its growth during the past three decades has been phenomenal. By statutes authorizing the institution and by educational practice and orientation, it is essentially a collegiate institution, providing programs of higher and technical education for the young adults of the area. It is usually established and controlled by a local school district, although in many instances the junior college district is a separate legal entity and may be larger than the high school district serving the same city. In some instances it may be a part of the state system of higher education, as it is in Oklahoma and New York. Thus, the junior college is commonly a part of the system of higher education in this country. But in some city school systems it has come to be regarded as a secondary institution, and is administered as such. Under such circumstances it may be a separate school, composed of grades 13 and 14. Several school systems, however, have reorganized their educational programs and have established two units of secondary education, a high school composed of grades 7 through 10, and a college unit composed of grades 11 through 14. This plan of organization is illustrated in Figure 20.

Pasadena (California) originated this type of school organization, and for years the school officials of that city were vigorous advocates of the six-four-four plan. Only a few other school systems—mostly in California, which authorized the plan by law—took up the idea during the ensuing decades. Although a number of theorists strongly endorsed the plan, it never won general acceptance. Even Pasadena lost its enthusiasm, and re-established a six-three-three-two plan a few years ago. Most of the other systems that tried the plan also discarded it, and the idea now seems to be in limbo.

Nevertheless, the concept that the thirteenth and fourteenth grades may well constitute a part of secondary education is not dead, and many educators believe that the kinds of educational opportunities provided by a good community college program should be made available without tuition charges to all citizens of the community. In theory and practice, such a college would represent an extension of secondary education, seeking to serve all the youth of the community, as well as its adults. But

¹¹ For the reactions of teachers, principals, and parents in one city, see John Otts and Dan Cagle, "Junior High School and the Six-Year Unit," *Teachers College Record*, 57:546-550 (May, 1956).

it probably will continue to remain organized as a separate institution, thus constituting a six-three-three-two plan or even an eight-four-two or a six-six-two plan.

THE EXTENT OF REORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Since the establishment of the first junior high school in 1910, the reorganization movement has expanded rapidly. Table 45 gives figures on the development of the reorganized secondary school program over the years. In 1951-1952, the last year for which the United States Office of Education has collected data, less than half of the public secondary

TABLE 45

Types of Public Secondary Schools and Enrollment in Each Type, 1920-1952

TYPES OF SCHOOL	1919-1920			
	SCHOOLS		ENROLLMENT	
	NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
Junior	55	0.4	37,331	1.9
Senior	22	0.1	17,791	0.9
Regular	13,421	93.7	1,667,480	83.4
Junior-senior	828	5.8	276,504	13.8
	14,326	100.0	1,999,106	100.0

TYPES OF SCHOOL	1937-1938			
	SCHOOLS		ENROLLMENT	
	NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
Junior	2,372	9.5	1,408,584	19.0
Senior	959	3.8	972,218	13.1
Regular	15,523	61.9	3,230,708	43.5
Junior-Senior	6,203	24.8	1,812,063	24.4
	25,057	100.0	7,423,573	100.0

TYPES OF SCHOOL	1951-1952			
	SCHOOLS		ENROLLMENT	
	NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
Junior	3,227	13.6	1,526,996	19.8
Senior	1,760	7.4	1,528,006	19.9
Regular	10,168	42.8	1,937,210	25.2
Junior-senior	8,591	36.2	2,696,707	35.1
	23,746	100.0	7,688,919	100.0

Source: U.S. Office of Education, "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951-1952," Chap. 5 in *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1950-1952* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954), p. 23.

schools in this country were of the traditional four-year type. In 1937-1938 more than three in every five schools were still of that type. But the real extent of reorganization is shown in the figures on enrollments. In 1951-1952 three fourths of all pupils attending public secondary schools were enrolled in some type of reorganized school. It is quite apparent that many of the four-year high schools still in operation are smaller schools, although some large city systems have retained the system. The United States Office of Education has published a rather complete analysis of the extent and types of reorganization for each state.¹²

PRINCIPLES FOR ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

A teacher entering a position with a school system will, of course, find the school organized for instructional purposes. But as a responsible member of the profession, he should have some conception of what constitutes sound and workable methods of organization. The educational program is organized only so that learning may be facilitated and educational development of pupils enhanced. Therefore, we may well judge the merits of any plan of organization of the school program by the extent to which it promotes the basic aims and objectives of the school. In terms of this basic concept these are some principles that should characterize the method of organizing the school:

1. The organization of the program of instruction throughout the school system should be maximally conducive to the development of a full and complete program of education, as envisioned in our goals of education, for each pupil from the time he enters school until he leaves.
2. The plan of organization should enable any one segment of the school system to provide the kinds of educational experiences most appropriate for pupils at that level of development.
3. Progression through the levels of schooling should be in terms of development and the best interests of the learner, with no artificial barriers serving to deny proper educational experiences for any pupil.
4. The types of learning experiences provided at each level should be carefully integrated and articulated so that needless overlapping and duplication are avoided, and, on the other hand, so that no serious gaps are allowed to exist.
5. Graduation or school-leaving ought to take place when the school has contributed what a public agency can, within reasonable and feasible limits, to the development of the pupil in terms of valid and accepted goals of education.

¹² Gaumnitz, *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis*.

6. The organization of the school program should enable teachers and other staff members to make maximum use of their creative abilities in the guidance of pupil development, yet provide for an efficient division of labor among the members of the total staff without sacrificing total development of the pupil.

7. The focus of the educational program should always be the pupils and not the organizational arrangement itself; their development should constantly be evaluated and appraised in terms of the goals of education; and it should be possible to make any necessary modifications in the program in order to further their development regardless of organizational arrangements.

Although these statements of principles may appear to be abstract and theoretical, as principles should be, their essence is that pupils always come first, and organizational arrangements are made to serve pupils, not opposite.

The Administration of the Secondary School

It is obvious that a formal program for the education of youth requires that someone establish schools, organize an educational program, and direct and manage the schools. This establishment, organization, direction, and management of schools constitutes school administration. Administration may be defined as the process of directing organized efforts toward the accomplishment of chosen objectives. School administration, then, consists of actions taken to define purposes and objectives for the school, to establish the school, to provide an educational program for pupils that is designed to attain these goals, and to manage and direct the institution so that it can carry out its educational program for pupils.

Administration of the schools is a matter of great importance to the classroom teacher, for the acts of the administrator determine the framework within which the teacher carries on his work with pupils. The decisions and actions of the administrator, acting within the legal framework established by the state, determine in a large part at least the nature of the educational program, the responsibilities and duties of the teacher, the facilities and equipment which he will have to carry on learning experiences, his conditions of employment, the ways he works with pupils, the educational climate of the school, and many such things of vital importance to him. He, in turn, must perform many administrative duties, must assist in the direction and management of the school, and must carry out administrative policies and decisions. This section will discuss administrative functions briefly and describe a few administrative practices of primary importance to the teacher.

THE PURPOSE AND NATURE OF ADMINISTRATION

A school is organized so that it may be administered; it is administered so that instructional goals may be attained efficiently and fully. Administration has one and only one function: to enable the school to direct and guide the development of boys and girls so that accepted goals of education are attained maximally. All organizational plans and all administrative acts must continuously be scrutinized and evaluated on the basis of what difference they make in the education of pupils, of what they contribute in and of themselves to the attainment of the basic goals of the school. We never establish a school just to administer it: we establish it to educate boys and girls, and administration is simply a process of carrying out that function.

This is common sense; yet in practice administrative officials on occasion violate this basic principle. Rules and regulations are promulgated, procedures are prescribed, reports are demanded, requirements are set, budgets are made, and similar steps are taken without, at times, considering fully what contribution such administrative actions will make to the attainment of the goals of education, the purpose for which the school exists. In fact, such acts may divert the energies of teachers from the job of directing the education of pupils or they may establish a procedure and structure within which it is difficult to carry out the basic function of the school. Thus, the administrator of the school is challenged to justify every administrative act on the basis of the contribution it will make to the advancement of the cause of education.

The kind of outcomes we want from the educational program of the school, the kinds of behavioral traits we wish to develop in our pupils, therefore, posit the type and kind of administrative structure, policies, and practices we must have in American secondary education. We cannot accept uncritically as models for the administration of a secondary school the administrative patterns that are used by industry to produce nuts and bolts, nor should we imitate blindly the organizational and administrative structure of a military establishment. The purposes of industry and of an army are different from those of the school; administrative practice may also need to be different. True, industry, the military, and other agencies have developed on an empirical basis many principles of management and administration that may well prove valid for secondary schools, but we utilize such principles because they will contribute to the achievement of the purposes of the school, not because they work in industry or in the army.¹³

¹³ In this connection see, Ordway Tead, *The Art of Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951), Chap. 7.

ASPECTS OF ADMINISTRATION

Administration is an integrated process, but for purposes of analysis the work of an administrator may be classified as follows:

1. Planning and decision making

- a. Plans
- b. Organization
- c. Staff
- d. Facilities
- e. Finance

2. Execution

- a. Managing
- b. Directing
- c. Supervising
- d. Coordinating
- e. Delegating
- f. Reporting

3. Evaluation

- a. Procedures
- b. Techniques
- c. Collection of evidence
- d. Analysis
- e. Appraisal

Obviously, these are not discrete categories; for example, a principal or a superintendent must make many decisions in the process of executing plans, but the making of major and fundamental decisions must precede execution.

Planning and decision making. This, of course, is a primary responsibility of the person who administers a school, be it the principal directly in charge of the institution or the superintendent who administers the entire school system.¹⁴ The principal and the superintendent are selected because of their ability to make wise decisions and because of insight and wisdom they bring to the planning process. In employing these school officials, the board of education will endeavor to choose persons who they think will make proper decisions and formulate sound plans. And what constitutes proper and sound decisions is determined by what the board members consider to be the functions and purposes of the school.

¹⁴ For an excellent discussion of these aspects of administration see Russell T. Gregg, "The Administrative Process," in R. F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (eds.), *Administrative Behavior in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), pp. 275-286.

From time to time administrative officials are removed from their positions by boards of education because the board does not approve of the decisions they have made or of plans they have put into effect. Most boards of education permit school officials a greater or lesser degree of discretion in making decisions on school matters, but they do set, formally or informally, limits whose violation results in conflict and often in the dismissal of the executive. Similarly, principals of secondary schools may be removed by the superintendent of schools because of conflicts over decisions and plans. On the other hand, school officials whose decisions are considered to be wise and sound and whose plans are deemed to result in progress and to achieve more fully the purposes of the school are lauded and rewarded.

Sometimes the climate of opinion in a community shifts, or new persons with different points of view are elected to the board of education; consequently, the decisions and plans of the administrators may also need to shift or conflict will result. One of the qualifications of a school administrative official of the utmost importance, and one often least understood or appreciated by his teachers, is this ability to sense the proper limits of discretionary decision making, and to formulate plans and policies that will be enthusiastically supported by the citizens who control the schools. Persons who have a high measure of such ability are in great demand and command top salaries. Of course, one of the primary functions of an administrator is to provide leadership to the citizens of the community and the board of education so that they will support sound and valid plans for the operation of the school and subscribe to proper goals of education.

Teachers have a very significant and important part in planning and decision making. Much of teaching itself involves planning—the kinds of learning experiences to develop with pupils, the ways in which the unit of work is to be developed, methods of working with pupils in classroom and out-of-classroom situations, methods to be used in evaluating learning, and the like—and teaching is the very heart of the educational program. In addition, teachers usually participate in many other kinds of planning done in the school, such as the determination of the program of studies and the activities to be offered, the marking system to be used, the nature and character of the guidance program, the standards and methods of discipline to be applied, the program of in-service education to be made available, and similar more or less important matters.

Various means are used to involve teachers in over-all planning in secondary schools throughout the country. Many principals include on the agenda of staff meetings discussions on matters of school policy and management; most school systems organize study and work committees of teachers who prepare plans and recommendations on the edu-

cational program and on matters of general policy; in-service workshops and study groups of teachers may prepare plans for improvement of the school. Some secondary schools have established teacher advisory councils or executive committees which work with the principal in formulating policies and plans. In any case, it should be quite evident to any teacher that he will be expected to participate in planning and decision making in the administration of the school. It is incumbent on him to discharge this duty wisely.

In summarizing the planning and decision-making responsibilities of the principal and other school officials, the following statement of principles should serve to give teachers an understanding of desirable school practice:

1. Basic to all planning and decision making and an essential part of that process is the formulation of goals, objectives, and purposes for the secondary school and the determination of its function in our democratic society.

2. Better goals and better plans, programs, and policies for attaining them will be formulated when decisions on such matters are made or at least weighed by the persons who also have a large share of the responsibility for attaining them or carrying them out in action.

3. Those who participate in the planning process, such as administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and citizens, must utilize the methods of creative thinking and critical study in formulating plans and arriving at decisions, being willing to examine pertinent evidence, to weigh alternative choices of action and define the system of values on which choices are made, and to validate them in terms of American traditions, beliefs, and value patterns.

4. The best program of education and the most effective work in carrying it out will be attained if those who work in the schools believe that the ends sought are sound and valid and that administrative and organizational practices and procedures are necessary and desirable and represent the best choices of methods under the circumstances in which the schools operate for achieving these ends.

5. The school should be so administered and managed and the work of the school should be so challenging and significant that teachers readily and wholeheartedly identify themselves with the cause of education and find their work provides a large measure of self-realization and self-satisfaction.

Execution. The executive aspect of school administration is apparent to anyone associated with the schools. These are the myriad tasks performed by the principal and his assistants and also by his own superiors in the central school office day after day and year after year that keep the

school operating and enable teachers to carry out their primary responsibilities for guiding the learning of pupils. Execution means the carrying out of plans and decisions made, the devotion of one's activities to the attainment of predetermined goals and purposes that have the approval of whomever the executive serves. Thus the President of the United States executes the laws of the land, but he also administers the government of our nation. Administration is the total process of establishing, operating, and managing an enterprise, such as a school or a school system; execution is that aspect of administration that involves the carrying out of decisions made or the putting into effect of policies and plans.

In exercising his executive function, the principal must decide who shall carry out plans and in what manner, secure agreement on the nature and meaning of the policies and plans formulated, assign responsibilities and duties, prepare time schedules, provide facilities and equipment, supervise teachers so that he may better direct and coordinate their efforts, assign pupils, direct the school food service, maintain the building, prepare or direct the preparation of reports, and carry on many management activities of these sorts. The necessity of such management and executive activities is apparent. The skill with which the principal manages the school has much to do with its success as an educational institution. Nevertheless, the principal should never become so enmeshed in the details of administrative management that he fails to define the function of the school and purposes for which it is managed at all. Valid and comprehensive plans must come first; execution is in terms of such plans.

Several important principles should characterize the executive aspect of administration:

1. Administrative actions of the principal and school officials should be consistent with accepted goals, purposes, policies, and plans, and should serve solely to facilitate their attainment.

2. Effective management of the school requires delegation of authority and responsibility, but responsibility should be assigned only to the extent that the prerequisite authority to carry out the duty is also delegated.

3. Authority to act should be delegated to a teacher or a staff member only if that person is also willing to accept responsibility for his acts.

4. In performing executive acts, the principal and other administrators should relate the action taken to the carrying out of plans and policies and make such relationship clear to those affected by the actions.

5. In carrying out plans and policies, the administrator should assign duties and responsibilities on the basis of the special competencies and

talents of members of the staff, but specialization should not militate against unity of effort in providing a sound program of education.

6. Teachers should be required to perform only those administrative acts that contribute significantly, in proportion to the time spent on them, to attainment of educational objectives and that cannot feasibly and economically be performed by members of the administrative staff or other personnel.

7. Teachers should perform punctually and adequately those administrative duties that do devolve on them as a necessary part of the carrying out of the work and program of the school.

Evaluation. A very important aspect of administration is the evaluation of the work and program of the high school in terms of the accepted functions and purposes of the school. Yet this is probably the phase of their job that most principals and school officials do least well; teachers also often fail to contribute significantly to the process. An administrator is shirking his responsibilities seriously if he does not himself evaluate systematically and fully the school for which he is responsible, and if he does not direct his staff in making such appraisals of the program.

Again, in evaluating the educational program, we must first define the functions, purposes, and objectives of the school, as an institution, and then consider each aspect of its program. We evaluate the outcomes of teaching and of the total work of the school, including its administration, on the basis of their contributions to the attainment of these goals. But evaluate we must or the school may be failing the pupils whom it is educating and the society whom it is serving.

Evaluations will be made by everyone concerned with the educational program—citizens, parents, pupils, the board of education, teachers, administrative staff, and the like. In recent years, citizens throughout this country have shown great interest in education and most of them have made appraisals of one sort or another of the schools, particularly of the high school. Many parent-teacher associations and parents' groups devote much energy, formally or informally, to an evaluation of the program of their school; the board of education, in taking legal actions and determining plans and policies, appraises the school; citizens' groups pass resolutions or take actions indicative of approval or disapproval of some aspect of the school's program. When the local Kiwanis Club or the Lions Club presents a plaque to a star football player on the local high school team, it is appraising the work of the school; when mothers raise money for band uniforms, they are making a judgment about the school; when the editor of the local paper gives front-page space to the scholarship awards won by graduating seniors of the local school, he is appraising the school program, just as is his sports editor who reports,

in his account of the game on Friday, that the local team couldn't tackle. It seems that everyone wants to evaluate—and is evaluating—the work of the school, and well they should, for the school is the most important social agency in our society today.

The administrator of the school has four important responsibilities in evaluation: he must try to obtain a clear and valid conception of the primary functions and purposes of the school in our democratic school on the part of all who wish to make an appraisal of the school or any part of its program, so that such evaluations will be proper and valid; he must assist those who wish to evaluate the school to obtain reliable and valid evidence so that sound findings will be made; he must make his own appraisals of his school; and he must guide his staff in carrying on continuously thoroughgoing and comprehensive evaluations of the entire program of the school, as well as of the work done in individual classes and activities.

Important principles should be observed in the evaluative aspects of administration:

1. The administrator should be certain that all appraisals made by him, the staff, or, insofar as he can influence action, citizens generally should be in terms of completely valid goals of the school, such as are formulated as a part of the planning aspect of administration.

2. The methods, procedures, and types of evidence that the administrator uses in making his evaluations should be known and understood by the staff.

3. Teachers should cooperate in gathering evidence for their own use and for the use of the administrative staff in evaluating the program.

4. Plans, methods, and procedures for comprehensive evaluation of the total program and work of the school or any aspect of it should be formulated cooperatively by all whose work is being appraised.

5. Administrative policies and practices should be evaluated on the same basis as teaching.

6. The results of official evaluations, such as tests, ratings, follow-up studies, and the like, should be available to those members of the staff whose work is being thus evaluated.

In this brief consideration of the administration of the school, we have stated the function of administration, the important aspects of administration, and some of the principles that should characterize administrative practices and procedures. Some teachers, having exercised no important administrative responsibilities themselves, are often critical of administration in general and of specific acts in particular; yet reflection should clarify the importance of administration and the ways in which it contributes to the success of the teacher. If administrative

acts are unsound or slovenly performed, the fault lies with the administrator, not with administration as an essential aspect of educating boys and girls.

The Line-and-Staff Organization of the School

In administering any enterprise, including schools, there must be a basis of authority for acts performed. Unless only one person has the authority to perform administrative acts and he does them himself, there needs to be a hierarchy of positions in the organization that clarifies the relationship of administrative personnel in terms of their authority. Such a hierarchy constitutes the line-and-staff organization.

LINES OF AUTHORITY IN SMALLER SCHOOL SYSTEMS

A diagram of a simple line-and-staff organization of a school system such as would be found in many of the towns and cities throughout the country is shown in Figure 21. Ultimate authority for the administration of schools rests with the people of the state. In the state constitution which they at one time adopted, and may amend from time to time, certain

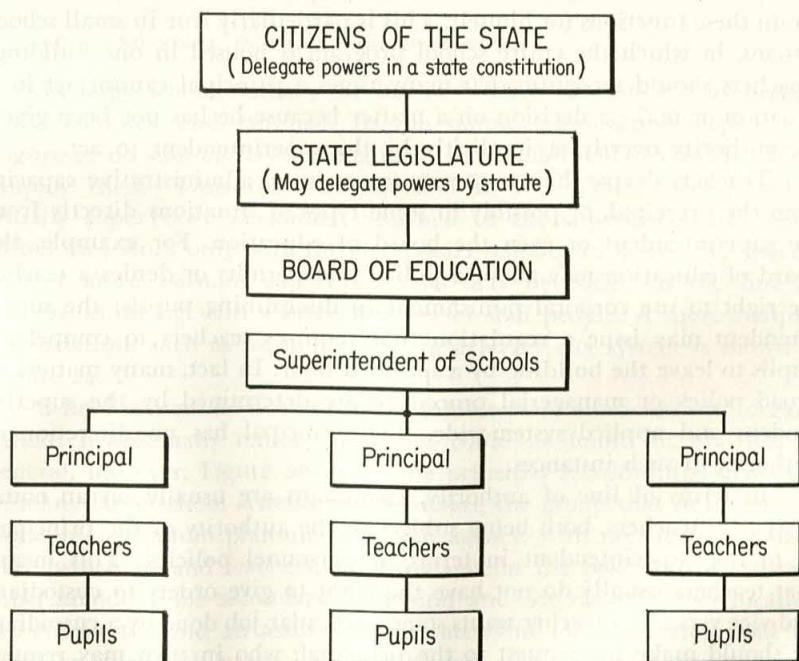


Figure 21. Line and Staff Organization in a Smaller School System.

mandates are given to the legislature relative to the founding of the school. The legislature, elected by the people and representing their will, passes laws that provide for a system of schools throughout the state and establish local school districts, governed by a board of education, to operate such schools within the structure delineated in law. Thus, within the structure of law, the local board of education has a great deal of authority, granted to it by law, with respect to the establishment and operation of schools. The board of education appoints a superintendent of schools to serve as its executive officer and the administrator of the school system. He derives all of his authority from the board of education, except that in a few states he has a few limited responsibilities and prerogatives granted by law, including tenure of position.

In exercising the authority granted him by the board of education, a superintendent at one time or another establishes and organizes schools. Usually he appoints a principal to serve as the head of each school. The principal is directly responsible to the superintendent and derives his authority from him. This relationship between the superintendent and the principal is a very important one, for it establishes the duties and function of the principal in administering his school. In some instances, the principal may have little real authority to make decisions, formulate plans, or manage the school—the superintendent has chosen to retain these functions for himself. This is particularly true in small school systems, in which the entire school program is housed in one building. Teachers should recognize that many times a principal cannot act in a situation or make a decision on a matter because he has not been given the authority overtly or implicitly by the superintendent to act.

Teachers derive their authority to act in an administrative capacity from the principal, or possibly in some types of situations directly from the superintendent or even the board of education. For example, the board of education may adopt a policy that permits or denies a teacher the right to use corporal punishment in disciplining pupils; the superintendent may issue a regulation that requires teachers to compel all pupils to leave the building by a specified hour. In fact, many matters of broad policy or managerial procedure are determined by the superintendent and applied system-wide. The principal has no discretionary authority in such instances.

In terms of line of authority, custodians are usually on an equal basis with teachers, both being subject to the authority of the principal, or to the superintendent in terms of personnel policies. This means that teachers usually do not have the right to give orders to custodians and vice versa. If a teacher wants some particular job done by a custodian, he should make his request to the principal, who in turn may request

the custodian to do it. But in some school situations even the principal has little real authority over the custodians in his building. They may be directly responsible to a chief custodian or engineer for the school system, who in turn is responsible to the superintendent or an assistant superintendent. Such a situation is not good administration, but in American school administration local practices and procedures have frequently developed that are not—or cannot feasibly be—corrected because of tradition, influence of pressure groups, labor unions, political organizations, or the like.

Pupils derive authority only from teachers or the principal. Their responsibility in administrative matters is usually very limited. Pupils serving as hall, cafeteria, or study hall monitors, as officials for intramural games, as presiding officers at school assemblies, or as operators of audio-visual equipment are examples of such a delegation of authority. Pupils often perform minor administrative functions, such as collecting or selling tickets for school events, managing stage properties, or policing parking lots. Some schools have a student court that metes out punishment to pupils who violate regulations or proper standards of conduct. But all administrative actions taken by pupils are subject to review and scrutiny by designated teachers, the principal, or even the superintendent.

LINE AND STAFF IN LARGE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

In large school systems, the line-and-staff organization may become quite complex and ramified. In the simple organization depicted in Figure 21 no staff officers are included, since small school systems seldom employ them. Thus the first addition to the administrative staff is usually supervisory personnel, attached to the superintendent's office. Often they work only with the elementary schools. In larger city systems, one or more assistant superintendents may be added to the line organization, along with a large number of staff people. A more complex organization, such as we might find in a larger city system is shown in Figure 22.

School systems do not follow the same type of administrative organization; hence many minor deviations could be found in practice. In general, however, Figure 22 shows the principal relationships that exist in many large school systems. In this chart, the group that heads up the work in curriculum planning is a staff agency, with no direct authority over principals and teachers; in many systems the positions of assistant superintendent for secondary education and for elementary education are eliminated and an assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction is placed in the line of authority, thus giving him a position

SCHOOL DISTRICT NUMBER ONE MULTNOMAH COUNTY, PORTLAND, OREGON

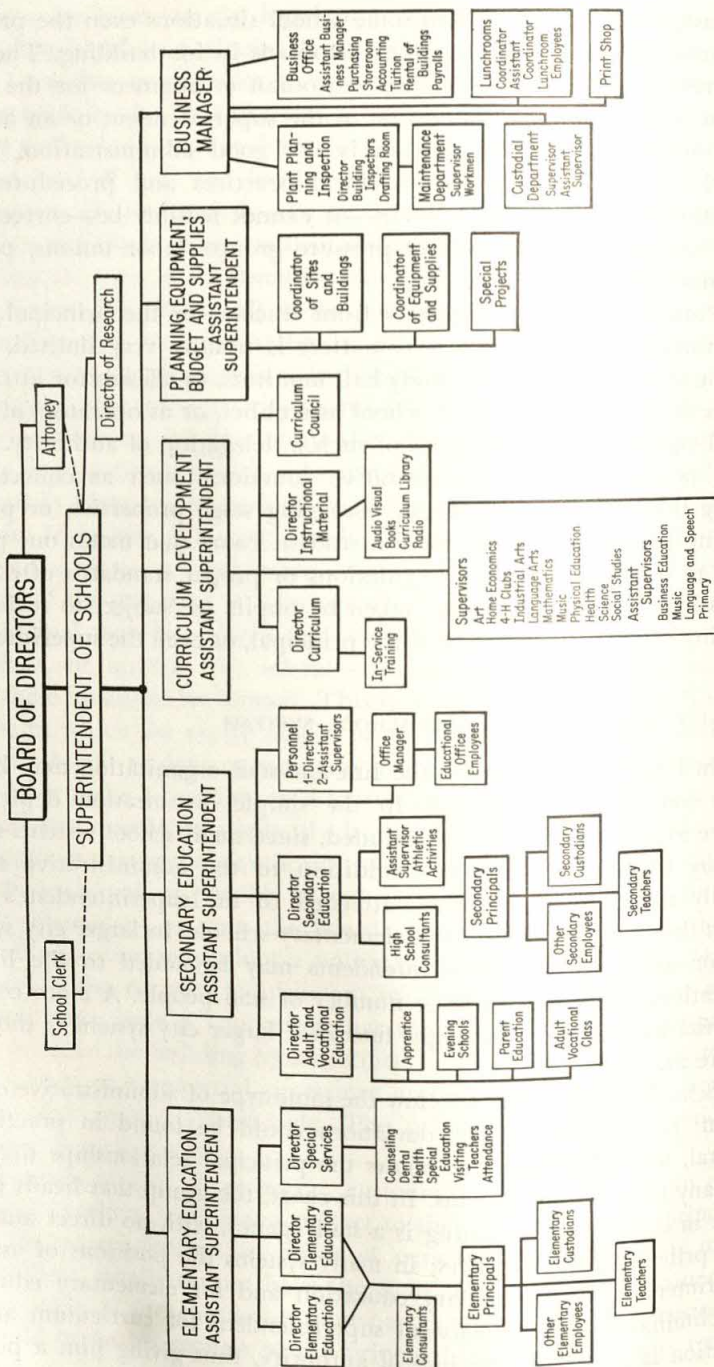


Figure 22. Line and Staff Organization in the Portland, Oregon, Public Schools. (Courtesy of the Portland Public Schools.)

of power and authority directly over that of the principals. Many of these lines of authority are not absolute, and in practice rigid exercise of authority, such as might apply in a military organization, is ignored.

THE TEACHER IN THE LINE-AND-STAFF ORGANIZATION

Regardless of the methods of organizing the staff, the efficiency and success of a school system will depend in a large measure on the character and professional integrity of its staff, including teachers, administrators, and supervisory personnel. Many specialists in administration decry the formal, rigid character of a line-and-staff organization and plead for a cooperative approach to school planning and administration. Certainly, as stated previously, all members of the staff can contribute substantially to the planning and evaluating aspects of administration, and any administrator who fails to utilize the creative intelligence of his staff is not only a poor administrator but a shortsighted professional leader. In the execution and management aspects of administration, however, someone must exercise the authority to carry out policies and plans, or inefficiency if not chaos will result. The classroom teacher should understand these relationships and the desirability of vesting authority in status personnel; in turn the administrator must understand the values to be derived from the participation of all members of the staff in those aspects of administration that are appropriate for group consideration. It is indeed a mark of the excellency of an administrator to be able to administer efficiently, yet wisely, within such a pattern.

Newly appointed teachers in a school will need to become thoroughly familiar with administrative lines of authority and the ways in which authority is exercised and delegated, as well as with the actual administrative policies and procedures applied in the school. As many teachers state it colloquially, one needs to "learn the ropes" if he is to avoid friction with the principal and with his subordinates and is to respect established procedures and the authority of status leaders.

Many large schools have teachers' handbooks that explain the duties of each official of the school, but even then much must be learned informally from other teachers or staff members. A general rule to observe is that the higher the position an official occupies in the administrative hierarchy, the less he should be concerned with the details and minutiae of management and execution and the more with policy and principle. It would be rather ridiculous for a teacher to discuss with the superintendent the kind of chalk he wanted to use in his classroom, but it might be quite appropriate to discuss with him the practices and policies used in selecting textbooks for his classes.

A teacher should always be considerate enough to observe the basic

concept of a line organization—a person does not present a matter to a superior officer in an organization without the knowledge and, if obtainable, consent of inferior officials who have responsibility in such matters. Even when the topic of discussion is the relationship of the teacher himself to such an official, the official should usually be informed of the intent of the teacher to confer with a superior officer about the matter. To illustrate, if, by practice and policy, textbooks for particular high school subjects are selected by the respective departmental staffs, a teacher should not make a protest to the principal about such selections without the knowledge of the department head.

If the principal himself ignores the line of authority in practice and asks a teacher about the selections, he is free to respond, although it might be desirable to inform the department head of such conversations later. As a further example, a teacher should not discuss his course assignments or load with the superintendent or the assistant superintendent in charge of personnel without the knowledge, and consent if possible, of the principal of his school. A teacher who wishes to transfer to another high school should frankly and openly discuss the matter with his principal before approaching a member of the central office staff. If discipline is the responsibility of an assistant principal, a teacher should not refer a disciplinary case to the principal. If he is not satisfied with the disposition of the case by that official, he may appeal to the principal, but the assistant principal should be informed of his intention.

These comments are made in an effort to aid teachers in adjusting to administrative practice in secondary schools, not to convey the impression that high schools are beset with jealousies, friction among the staff, and the like. Actually, most high schools operate very smoothly and, most important of all, are staffed with human beings who are more interested in the education of boys and girls than in the niceties of organizational procedure. Most teachers and administrators, who themselves were once teachers, act on faith and are people of goodwill, but this fact does not justify breaches of good human relationships in the entire school.

Administrative Practices in Individual Schools

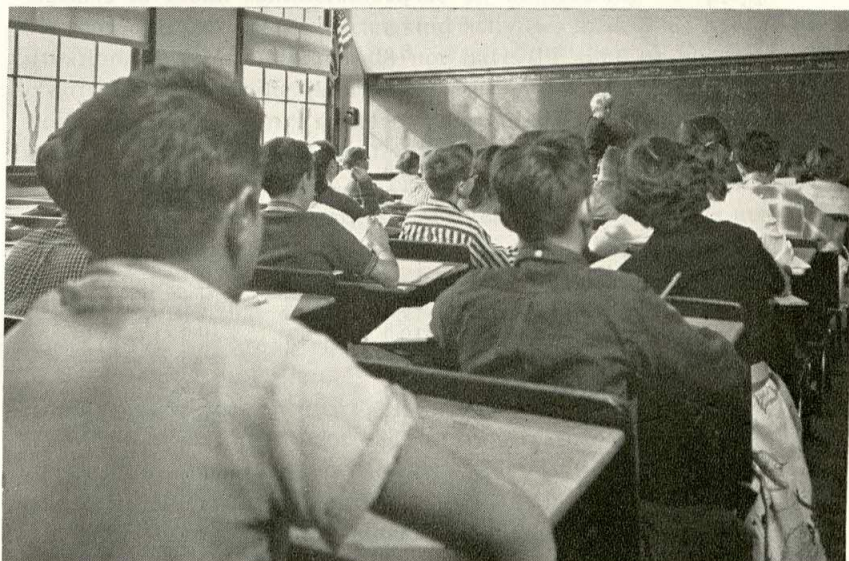
CLASS SIZE AND WORK LOAD

The total work load to be assigned a teacher is a very important administrative problem, not only to teachers, but to pupils, taxpayers, and the board of education as well. The issue should not be decided solely on the basis of the self-interest of any one group, but some kind of acceptable compromise will probably have to be reached. Again, the primary consideration in formulating policy should be the education of boys and girls; the school should determine the work load, which in-

cludes class size as a factor, so that available resources and funds are used most effectively in advancing the total education of pupils enrolled. The taxpayers and the public generally must continuously be informed about the basic issues involved, and be shown that usually they get about the quality of education they are willing to pay for.

What constitutes a proper size for high school classes? What is a proper and just work load for teachers? In a significant summary of research studies on class size, Ross and McKenna conclude that studies made before 1940 favored smaller over larger classes by a ratio of two to one, and that new studies, using classroom conditions as the criterion of measurement "unanimously favor smaller classes, with some words of caution."¹⁵ They point out that "small high school English and social studies classes tend to have more variety in instructional methods used than do large classes in those subjects."¹⁶

Teachers themselves report, in a survey made by the United States Office of Education, that a class under fifteen pupils is too small and a



Large Classes Make It Difficult to Provide the Best Learning Situation for Each Pupil. The rapid growth of population in some urban centers often creates a situation in which large classes must be scheduled temporarily until new facilities can be built. This picture was used to portray the need for additional buildings in a school bond election. (Courtesy of the Seattle Public Schools.)

¹⁵ Donald H. Ross and Bernard McKenna, *Class Size: The Multi-Million Dollar Question* (New York: Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), p. 22.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*

class of thirty in English and mathematics and thirty-five in social studies is too large for efficient teaching.¹⁷ Other aspects of the problem have been explored in two excellent symposiums in professional journals.¹⁸

The size of classes taught by secondary school teachers and the total number of pupils taught in all classes are strikingly revealed in a special study made by the National Education Association, and shown in Table 46.

TABLE 46

*Size of Classes and Total Number of Pupils Taught
in All Classes, Secondary Schools, 1956*

SIZE OF CLASSES	RURAL TEACHERS	URBAN TEACHERS
Fewer than 10 pupils	12.0%	2.3%
10-19	34.7	14.6
20-24	16.1	16.6
25-29	14.2	21.8
30-34	12.3	25.3
35-39	6.2	12.7
40-44	2.8	3.4
45-54	1.1	1.7
55-64	0.3	0.7
65 or more	0.3	0.9
	100.0%	100.0%
Total number of Pupils Taught in All Classes		
Fewer than 75	25.2%	7.2%
75-99	19.8	10.8
100-124	18.9	20.8
125-149	14.7	25.6
150-174	11.1	19.2
175-199	6.8	6.8
200-224	0.8	3.5
225-249	1.0	1.6
250 or more	1.7	4.5
	100.0%	100.0%

Source: National Education Association, Research Division, *The Status of the American Public-School Teacher*, Research Bulletin (No. 1), 35:55-56 (February), 1957.

¹⁷ Ellsworth Tompkins, *What Teachers Say about Class Size* (U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 311; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1949), p. 5.

¹⁸ Special Journal Feature, "Class Size and Teacher Load," *NEA Journal*, 46:436-447 (October, 1957).

Symposium, "The Load of the Secondary School Teacher," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 32:292-315 (May, 1957).

The total work load of teachers is also a matter of significance and should receive careful study by administrators. A number of factors determine the work load of classroom teachers: number of classes taught daily; number of pupils taught in these classes; number of different class preparations required by the teaching assignment; length of class period; time spent in preparing for and planning class activities, and in marking papers, notebooks, and the like; time spent in directing or sponsoring extraclass activities; time spent on professional duties not directly connected with class work or activities, such as work on curriculum planning committees, study committees, or in-service education projects; and time spent on performing management and administrative duties, such as filling in reports, collecting money for school purposes, requisitioning materials, supervising halls and cafeterias, monitorial duties, clerical work, and similar nonteaching tasks.

The teacher is, of course, employed to teach classes and direct activities but, unfortunately, some high school principals require or expect teachers to spend considerable time on nonteaching duties, without a commensurate reduction in class and activities load. This may result in situations in which teachers do not have the time or energy to do a creative job of teaching. A principal must give consideration to the total work load imposed on a teacher and endeavor to keep it within reasonable expectations, so that the teacher not only will have time to devote to planning and carrying on his classroom work in a creative manner, but will have the energy and enthusiasm to do so. In recent years many classroom teachers have complained bitterly about the heavy work load they are expected to carry, particularly when it involves the performance of many duties that are managerial and clerical in nature. Excessive duties of this sort are listed as one of the major deterrents to satisfaction in the teaching profession.¹⁹

A comprehensive study of the teacher's workweek was made by the California State Department of Education in 1950. The survey included 12,758 full-time instructors employed in 288 of the 312 public high schools of that state. Some findings of the study are shown in Table 47.

In this study noninstructional assignments at scheduled hours included study halls and homerooms, counseling, preparation or office period, and assigned administrative duties; other noninstructional duties included all of the things done out of regular school hours, such as planning and preparation, correcting papers, clerical work, conferences and staff meetings, in-service education, and school and community services. Detailed analysis of the data shows that teachers of the language arts and social studies estimate that they have longer workweeks than do teachers

¹⁹ Yale University-Fairfield (Connecticut) Public Schools, *Yale-Fairfield Study of Elementary Teaching and Teacher Assistants* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University, 1956 and 1958).

TABLE 47

*The Workweek of California Public
Secondary School Teachers
(12,758 teachers)*

TYPE OF SCHOOL	MEDIAN LENGTH OF WORKWEEK	PERCENTAGE OF WORKWEEK SPENT IN VARIOUS TYPES OF DUTIES		
		CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION	NONINSTRUCTIONAL ASSIGNMENTS AT SCHEDULED HOURS	OTHER NON- INSTRUCTIONAL DUTIES OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL DAY
Junior high school	42 hrs. 7 min.	50%	13%	37%
Senior and four-year high schools	44 hrs. 7 min.	52	12	36
Junior-senior high schools	43 hrs. 38 min.	52	10	38
All high schools	43 hrs. 33 min.	52	12	36

Source: California State Department of Education, Bureau of Education Research, "Survey of Teachers' Work Week in California High Schools," *California Schools*, 25:339-355 (August, 1954). (Note: Typographical error in Figure 1 in this source corrected in Thomas A. Shellhammer, "Work Week of the Secondary School Teacher," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 32:303 [May, 1957].) Reprinted by permission of the California State Department of Education.

in other fields. Teachers teaching in more than one subject field also estimate that their workweek is longer than that of those specializing in only one field. The corollary problems of class size and workweek are becoming increasingly serious for teachers, and the administrative officials of our secondary schools must do all they can to protect teachers from excessive loads; yet they have a responsibility to provide educational opportunities for all youth of the community who seek an education.

EXTENSION OF THE SCHOOL YEAR AND SCHOOL DAY

Another administrative matter that is certain to become one of increasing importance in the years ahead is the extension of the school year, and the scheduling of a longer school day.

Generally throughout the country, the scheduled school day constitutes about six hours and fifteen to thirty minutes. Two practices are followed in determining the length of the class period: either it is the

"short" period of about forty to forty-five minutes or it is the "long" period of about fifty-five to sixty minutes. Thus the typical schedule consists of eight short periods or six long periods. In the latter plan, pupils seldom have separate study periods, and assignments and class preparation are done within the scheduled period; in the short-period plan the entire class period is usually devoted to instructional activities and pupils study during scheduled study hall periods. We are not concerned here with the relative merits of these two practices, but rather to suggest that some lengthening of the school day may occur throughout the country in the years ahead. Of course, high schools that must split their student body into two or even three shifts already are operating the school for as many as ten hours a day, but many schools on single shifts may extend the day to seven or even eight hours so that pupils may enroll in more subjects or engage in activities without reducing the number of subjects taken.

Currently, however, most attention is being given to the extension of the school year so that it would consist of a year-round program or additional offerings during a special summer program. The year-round school would be in session for four quarters of about twelve weeks each. Pupils would be required to attend three quarters, being assigned so as to balance enrollments among all quarters, but some might be permitted to attend four quarters if facilities and staff permitted. Such a plan is a significant departure from American practice and, admittedly, its acceptance by the citizens will be difficult. Its principal advantages are more efficient use of school plant, year-round employment of teachers at proportionally higher salaries, and some alleviation of the shortage of teachers.²⁰

A less dramatic change in the school schedule and one likely to receive more widespread acceptance by teachers and citizens alike is the special summer program. In such a plan the high schools offer special types of programs for pupils who wish to participate voluntarily. For many years some systems have offered a summer session, usually limiting the program to subjects in greatest demand. But in recent years a few school systems have developed programs of a more experimental nature, designed to serve pupils who wanted to pursue special interests or to work intensively in a particular area of study, such as science, mathematics, music, art, industrial arts, and the like. Such programs offer much promise in serving the needs of pupils who wish to develop specialized abilities and talents or to round out their education by taking work in addition to the program of the regular academic year. Teachers who

²⁰ The Council of State Governments, "Full Use of Educational Facilities," a memorandum prepared for the Governors' Conference, 1957 (Chicago: The Council, 1957). Mimeographed.

are selected to work in such programs are paid extra unless they are on a twelve-month employment basis.

A few school systems have adopted a plan of providing year-round employment for teachers, placing them under contract for the entire twelve months, presumably at salaries proportionately larger than would be paid for service only during the school term. Under such a plan teachers have a month's vacation (on pay) but spend the remainder of the school vacation period in professional activities, such as working at curriculum development, teaching in the special summer programs described in the previous paragraph, or engaging in other approved activities. Permission may be obtained on occasion for travel or professional study. Such plans have merit, provided that teachers really are paid a proportionately larger salary and the community receives genuine professional service for the money expended.

GROUPING PUPILS FOR INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES

As was noted in Chapter 10, grouping pupils for instructional purposes is one of the critical problems in secondary schools today. In small schools only one section of a class is offered; hence all pupils who are required to take that subject, usually those in a particular grade, or who elect that subject, constitute the group for instructional purposes. The teacher may organize from time to time one or more subgroups within the class, but he usually determines the basis on which this is done. In large secondary schools in which two or more sections of the same class must be scheduled, assignment of pupils to the various sections may follow one of these procedures:

1. Chance or random assignment to sections, without selection on any predetermined criterion.
2. Grouping according to demonstrated ability in the subject, such as marks previously earned and/or scores on achievement tests.
3. Grouping according to general scholastic ability as determined by intelligence tests.
4. Grouping according to course of study selected or future plans, such as a college preparatory course, or a secretarial course.
5. Deliberate assignment so that a heterogeneous group in terms of scholastic ability and/or achievement level in the subject is assured.

A school may use a different method for assigning pupils to sections in the various areas of the curriculum such as the academic subjects, vocational subjects, and physical education. If a subject is an elective one, a natural grouping has taken place at the outset before assignment is made to sections, usually on the basis of course of study selected or achievement levels in that field of study.

In determining the method or methods to be used in assigning pupils to class sections, teachers and administrators should reach a decision on the basis of what plan will best enable the staff to carry out the basic and primary purposes of the school—to promote maximally the desirable growth and development of boys and girls in terms of valid and approved goals of education. Such growth and development has intellectual, emotional, social, and physical aspects, all of which have been considered in formulating goals; hence all of these aspects must be considered in deciding what plan of grouping should be used in teaching pupils. The only proper method for sectioning pupils is to group them so that learning experiences that promise to contribute most to the attainment of objectives may be provided efficiently and meaningfully for all pupils.

Grouping, then, should be based on the nature and purpose of the learning experiences to be developed with each class of pupils. If the principal objective of a class in geometry, for example, is to learn the principles and concepts of demonstrative geometry, it would seem to be proper to section pupils enrolled in the subject in such a way that each one will learn these principles and methods of geometrical proof best, *provided* that such groupings do not militate against the development of other learning experiences that will contribute maximally to the attainment of valid and proper goals of education not encompassed within the work of the geometry class, and *provided* that the school includes in its program ample and adequate opportunities for other learning experiences that will contribute to the realization of those total objectives of education not realized in the geometry class.

Grouping practices in the American high school have been the subject of much discussion in recent years, for many citizens and educators feel that the method used to group pupils for instructional purposes is the basic issue involved in many of the criticisms directed at secondary education in this country. A number of schools have developed a "track" plan, which is a procedure for classifying pupils into different programs of study on the basis of ability or future plans. One of the principal recommendations that Conant makes as a result of his comprehensive study of secondary education in this country is the grouping of pupils, subject by subject, according to their ability in the subject. He does not approve the "track" plan, for he believes grouping should be individualized; each pupil should have a program of studies and be sectioned in each subject in terms of his own individual ability in the subject itself and his particular needs. Conant states that usually three groups in a subject by subject, according to their ability in the subject. He does not needs: one for the more able, one for the middle group, and one for the slow learners who need special attention.²¹

²¹ James B. Conant, *The American High School—A First Report* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959).

Many secondary schools group pupils in academic subjects on the basis of crude measures of academic achievement: they often provide special opportunities for talented and gifted youth in elective courses, such as advanced courses in science, mathematics, art, music, dramatics, or creative writing; elective programs in vocational and technical subjects enable pupils to pursue individual interests in those areas. Activities, such as athletics, assemblies, pep clubs, or the student council, provide a different kind of grouping that enhances certain types of learning experiences, and so on through the school's program.

ENTRANCE, PROGRESS, AND GRADUATION

In our single, unitary system of American education, pupils advance normally from the elementary to the secondary school. Usually no artificial barriers are erected by the secondary school, and it accepts all pupils whom the elementary school promotes. A few specialized schools in large cities, such as those in New York City, have admission requirements, but any pupil promoted by the elementary school is eligible to attend the comprehensive high school serving that area of the city. Full-time attendance at school is compulsory in most states until age sixteen, and until seventeen in four states and eighteen in five states.²² (See pages 684-685.) Thus, entrance to American high schools is not a problem of much administrative importance.

Determining whether pupils should pass a particular course and whether they should graduate, however, are matters of much concern to administrators and teachers alike. Some educators and citizens believe that a pupil should not pass a course, particularly in the basic academic subjects, unless he meets prescribed minimum standards of achievement. Others believe that he should pass if he makes a sincere and honest effort and works diligently to achieve the objectives of the course. In formulating an answer to this problem, teachers must constantly keep in mind that schools for a democratic society should provide for the maximum development of each pupil in terms of his potentialities. The educational program, therefore, must be geared to the individual capabilities of each boy and girl insofar as this is feasible in a school situation, and success in school subjects should become an individual matter.

In implementing such a policy, the following plan seems to be a logical and valid one: In the general education subjects required of pupils, various sections of such courses, differentiated as to quality and

²² Ward Keesecker, *Compulsory School Attendance and Minimum Educational Requirements in the United States* (U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 440; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955); and Arch K. Steiner, "A Report of State Laws: Early Elementary Education," *School Life*, 39:7-10 (May, 1957).

nature of work demanded, should be offered, and pupils should be assigned to a section in which the requirements for earning a passing grade will be commensurate with their demonstrated levels of ability in that subject; all pupils who fulfill these requirements, which must comprehend appropriate goals of general education, should be given a passing mark, and the credit be counted for graduation; conversely, pupils who are properly placed as to section should be failed if they do not fulfill reasonable expectations for their respective levels of ability—thus able pupils could be failed even though they did a much better quality of work on absolute terms than did pupils of lesser ability who passed; and, finally, the school should offer a variety of special-interest courses, geared to the capabilities, potentialities, and interests of pupils, so that all pupils could elect a field for special study in which they would have reasonable chances of success. If they fulfilled proper standards for such a field of study they would be passed; if not they would fail. Thus, a pupil who elected physics would pass the course only if he did a quality of work that scholars in this field generally accept as valid for this course; a pupil who elected senior choir would pass only if he did a quality of work that could reasonably be expected of such a class.

Such a plan seems to be the best procedure for educating each pupil in terms of his own potentialities; certainly, it is undemocratic to try to educate him in terms of someone else's talents. In small high schools, varied requirements in terms of individual capabilities will be formulated for members comprising the class, and adjustments will need to be made accordingly within the group. In this plan, which is more or less tacitly followed in many high schools today, credits for graduation would be amassed as under the present system, and the pupil would be graduated when he fulfilled the prescribed requirements for number and distribution of credits earned in sections of required courses adjusted to his abilities and in elective courses chosen in terms of his capabilities. Thus the graduating class would be composed of pupils whose attainments varied as widely as their talents and capabilities.

The high school diploma would not signify that a graduate had attained some arbitrary level of development, intellectually, nor socially, emotionally, or physically, but that his accomplishments and development had attained levels appropriate to his own capacities and potentialities. A high school diploma is not a set of credentials; it should certify that the pupil has attained goals set by the school for him in terms of his own individuality. College admission officials and employers who want to know what the graduate's attainments are should request such information on an individual basis direct from the high school.

Some high schools facing this problem, however, have developed a "track" system of differentiating pupils and of establishing different sets

of requirements for graduation. Some schools have as many as four different basic programs in which pupils are grouped, with some additional variations possible within a track. These schools also either state on his diploma the program pursued by the pupil, or grant an entirely different type of certificate to graduates in the lowest academic group. However, we agree with Conant that what is needed in American secondary education is not greater standardization, but greater individualization, so that each pupil may be enrolled in a program of studies selected to best serve his individual needs and levels of ability. Graduation would then mean that he has completed the requirements of his own individual program.

We ourselves recognize that divergent views exist on this whole problem, but we take the basic position that the schools of a democracy must adhere to policies that are consistent with the democratic traditions of the culture. The above plan seems to us to fulfill that requirement.

REPORTING PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

One of the most important aspects of teaching is the evaluation of pupil growth and development and the appraisal of achievement, and one of the continuing administrative duties of teachers is to report to the pupil and his parents on his progress in attaining the objectives of education. Evaluation of teaching and learning was discussed in Chapter 15; here we want to consider briefly some aspects of reporting pupil progress. Such reports are usually directed to the parents or guardians of the pupils, but obviously they also constitute a formal report to the pupil himself.

Since the school exists solely to guide and direct the development of pupils in terms of defined goals, a report of progress should, of course, provide information on the extent to which the pupil is attaining these goals. Appraisal must always be in terms of some standard, some set of values sought; in the school it is in terms of the purposes and objectives of the school. So again, as in every decision facing us in the schools, we must act on the basis of what contributes best to the attainment of the fully accepted and approved goals of the school. Appraisal, therefore, must be as broad and as comprehensive as the goals of the school itself, and evidence should be collected on all aspects of growth accepted as a valid responsibility of the school.

After such an appraisal has been made, and it should be made by both the teacher and the pupil, each independently and also cooperatively on many aspects of learning, some suitable report should be made to both the pupil and his parents. The pupil should be thoroughly cognizant of the progress he is making in attaining the objectives of the school, including those pertinent to each subject and activity in which he is enrolled, for such

an evaluation is a necessary part of teaching. Nevertheless, he should have a formal report from time to time of the teacher's evaluation of his progress. Such a report should give as much information as is possible and feasible, considering demands made on the teacher's time and the values to be gained through such reporting. It ought to give some evidence on attainments in each of the major categories of goals, such as acquisition of knowledge, concepts, generalizations, skills, and abilities; attitudes; ways of working; behavioral traits; and methods used in problem solving and critical thinking.

Since the specific objectives for a subject vary among the fields of instruction, report forms should be prepared for each field so that specific achievements may be reported. Thus, a secondary school should have a separate report form for English, social studies, mathematics, physical education, and so on. The form should list the major objectives, both of subject-matter achievement and of behavioral traits emphasized in that field of work, so that ratings may be made most meaningful. In fact, the form might well be longer and much more comprehensive than the typical report card that provides merely for a single mark in each of several subjects. This latter type of report, commonly still used in many high schools, assumes that the pupil knows the standards on which a rating is based, although actually he may have little conception of what the objectives of the course are. If course objectives, broadly conceived, are used to formulate the standards of attainment expected in all areas for which the school accepts responsibility, marks become meaningful.

Many parents are genuinely interested in the education of their children, and they welcome a comprehensive report on their children's achievements and developments. They can act more wisely in supervising their children and in giving direction to their work at school and in the home. Teachers also may learn much from parents that will be helpful in planning appropriate learning experiences for the children. Two-way communication is highly desirable, but it becomes somewhat difficult at the secondary school level. Parent-teacher conferences would be much too time consuming, since each teacher would have 150 to 200 sets of parents to interview and parents would have conferences with four or five teachers two or more times each year. It may be possible for a counselor to confer with the parents of each of his advisees and to make pertinent information available to classroom teachers as a part of the guidance program of the school. Written comments on report cards may provide some help, but usually these comments are very sketchy and general.

As for parents who have little interest in the education of their children or slight understanding of the functions and purposes of the school, probably little will be accomplished by sending a report home

at all. We should, however, try to make any report submitted as meaningful as possible so that the parent does not incorrectly interpret it and treat his child in such a way as to negate what the school is trying to do.

Many other administrative matters have an important bearing on the work of the secondary school teacher, but it is not feasible to discuss them in detail here. Some, such as the teacher's role in guidance, in out-of-class activities, and in the selection of teaching materials, have been discussed in other chapters, and a point of view on many problems of administration has been clearly stated throughout the book. In conclusion, it should be emphasized again that learning in a school is vitally affected by the character and quality of the administration of the school; moreover, teachers should understand issues and problems involved in administration and should contribute whenever possible to the improvement of the framework within which education takes place.

For Further Study

"Advanced Placement Programs in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (No. 242), 42:1-171 (December, 1958).

A special issue of the *Bulletin* discusses in detail programs for granting advanced standing in college. Such programs constitute one method of grouping pupils in the secondary school.

Alameda Unified School District, Committee on Promotion. "Annual or Semi-annual Promotion," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (No. 233), 41:17-29 (December, 1957).

A survey and analysis of promotional practices.

American Association of School Administrators. *The High School in a Changing World*. Thirty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1958.

Chapter 7 considers the organization of the secondary school, and Chapter 11, the duties and responsibilities of administrators as leaders in the improvement of the school.

American Association of School Administrators, Commission on School District Reorganization. *School District Organization*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1958.

On the basis of a two-year study, this commission recommends the organization of districts that contain 10,000 pupils.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *A Look at Continuity in the School Program*. 1958 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958.

Considers one of the serious problems in educational planning and administration—the integration of learning experiences at all school levels. Also has chapters on the orientation of pupils to new school situations.

Campbell, Roald F., and Russell T. Gregg, eds. *Administrative Behavior in Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

A good text on some aspects of administration.

Clevenger, Arthur W. *Trends in School and Grade Reorganization—Major Departures from the Traditional Eight-Four Plan*. Urbana, Ill.: Office of Field Service, University of Illinois, 1955.

An extensive study of the methods used throughout the North Central area to organize the school system.

"A Discussion of the Year-Round School Program," *NEA Journal*, 45:82-84 (February, 1956).

A brief description of twelve-months programs for teachers at Glencoe (Illinois) and Rochester (Minnesota) and a former teacher's denunciation of such programs.

Fitts, Daniel B. "The House Plan as a New Concept in Secondary School Organization," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (No. 236), 42:155-163 (March, 1958).

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This pamphlet presents an excellent point of view on evaluation and reporting to parents, and describes desirable practices in formulating a reporting system.

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An excellent text on high school administration; it treats in detail many administrative matters discussed in this chapter.

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An excellent set of papers and reports on the junior high school and its place in American education.

Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Committee. *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis*. U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 21. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1954.

Information about the junior high and its development in this country.

Getzels, J. W., and E. G. Guba. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," *School Review*, 65:423-441 (Winter, 1957).

Develops a theory about administration and analyzes the administrative process.

Gruhn, William T., and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. 2d ed. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956.

Part I of this widely used text discusses the history and philosophy of the junior high school.

Gruhn, William T., and Ellsworth Tompkins. "What's the Best Combination?" *NEA Journal*, 45:497-498 (November, 1956).

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Chapter 10 discusses the appraisal and reporting of pupil achievement; Chapter 12, selected aspects of administration.

Jewett, Robert E. "Why the Able Public School Teacher is Dissatisfied," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 236), 42:110-120 (March, 1958).

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Koos, Leonard V. *Junior High School Trends*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955.

An excellent book on the junior high school movement, with a chapter on the purposes of reorganization.

———. "A Recent 6-4-4 Reorganization," *School Review*, 64:101-107 (March, 1956).

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Lentz, Donald W. "History and Development of the Junior High School," *Teachers College Record*, 57:522-536 (May, 1956).

A brief, but excellent account of the development of the junior high school.

"Looking at the Junior High School," *High School Journal*, 40:82-141 (December, 1956).

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Morse, H. Taylor. "Administrative Organization and Processes," in National Society for the Study of Education, *The Integration of Educational Experiences*. Fifty-seventh Yearbook, Pt. III. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958, pp. 143-170.

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Ogden, Clyde L. "The Four Quarter Plan—How Practical an Idea?" *American School Board Journal* (No. 1), 133:19-21; (No. 2), 133:19-21 (July and August, 1956).

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Rich, K. W. "Present Status of the All-Year Secondary School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 31:18-24 (January, 1956).

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Ross, Donald H., and Bernard McKenna. *Class Size: The Multi-Million Dollar Question*. New York: Institute of Administrative Research, Columbia University, 1955.

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Sternig, John. "Roundup on the Year-Round School," *NEA Journal*, 47:46-48 (January, 1958).

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Tead, Ordway. *The Art of Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951.

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Tompkins, Ellsworth, and Virginia Roe. "The Two-Year Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (No. 230), 41:27-44 (September, 1957).

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Van Til, William, and John Lounsbury. "Meet Junior," *NEA Journal*, 46:594-596 (December, 1957).

Discusses changes in the philosophy and program of the junior high school.

A Last Word

In this text we have tried to describe, explain, and analyze, and not, for the most part, to evaluate modern secondary education. In closing our treatment of the subject, however, we would state very clearly a judgment which has undoubtedly influenced at many points our descriptions, explanations, and analyses. This judgment, simply stated, is that the American system of secondary education is a truly remarkable achievement, one that stands unique among the educational systems of the modern world. The almost universal attendance, the broad and varied curriculum, and the concern for the individual pupil are among the distinctive and exceptional features of the American system.

We have tried to show the problems and issues American educators and citizens have faced, and continue to face, in maintaining greatness in secondary education. These problems and issues, as we see them, have revolved and continue to revolve about a central question: Can we maintain a high quality of education for each individual while attempting to educate virtually all youth in secondary schools? We believe that America's answer to this question has been affirmative, and that it will become even more positively so. We especially like the statement of the 1958 Rockefeller Report on Education, regarding this central question:

Not only must our educators handle a huge increase in the number of students, they must offer higher quality in education. From time to time one still hears arguments over *quantity* versus *quality* education. Behind such arguments is the assumption that a society can choose to educate a few people exceedingly well *or* to educate a great number of people somewhat less well, but that it cannot do both. But a modern society such as ours cannot choose to do one *or* the other. It has no choice but to do both. Our kind of society calls for the maximum development of individual potentialities *at all levels*.

Fortunately, the demand to educate everyone up to the level of his ability

and the demand for excellence in education are not incompatible. We must honor both goals. We must seek excellence in a context of concern for all.¹

It has not been easy to provide excellence for all, nor do we expect all American citizens and educators to agree on either the definition or the accomplishment of excellence. For some years disagreements have become more pronounced as the complexity of the educational job increased. In 1957 the tensions produced by the race for scientific and military supremacy precipitated more critical and urgent concern for better education. The enduring faith in our schools was symbolized, however, by an editorial in *The New York Times* for July 27, 1958, fittingly headed "What's Right with Our Schools." With the following paragraph this editorial introduces a brief review of a report on American schools by the United States Office of Education:

In recent months American education has received a thoroughgoing evaluation at the hands of critics and friends alike. Ever since Sputnik dramatized the outer space, our schools and colleges have been taunted for their inability to produce competent scientists or intelligent boys and girls. Too often, in comparing education in this country and in the Soviet Union, the Communist-type schooling came out ahead. It is good, therefore, to find that all the hysteria about our "inadequate" schools is not entirely justified.²

Following review of some of the data in the Office of Education report, which had been presented at the Twenty-first International Conference on Education at Geneva, as to accomplishments and limitations of American public education, the *Times* editorial concludes: "The nation's educators, in spite of many handicaps, are alert to the needs of this country in a dynamic space age."³

Undoubtedly, secondary education is in a period of careful examination and study. Some educators feel indeed that we may be entering a new era, one of readjustment to a renewed emphasis on intellectual development. For example, Henry Steele Commager, the noted historian, developed this point in a 1957 address, and justified the idea of the new era as follows:

. . . that the school no longer bears the heavy responsibilities in the non-academic realm that it did in the nineteenth century, that it now shares with many other agencies responsibility for non-academic educational activities, and that it is in a better position to devote its attention to what we may call academic func-

¹ Rockefeller Brothers Fund, *The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future of America*. (Special Studies Project Report V; Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, 1958), p. 22.

² "What's Right with Our Schools," *The New York Times*, July 27, 1958, p. B8.

³ *Ibid.*

tions than ever before. Schools do not need to educate parents through their children as they once did; and the parents themselves not only are more sophisticated but have more leisure time for their responsibilities and duties than they had in the nineteenth century. . . .⁴

It is encouraging that as this book goes to press the widely publicized Study of the American High School by former Harvard President James B. Conant has reported favorably on American high schools. Although making many recommendations deserving serious study by the public and the teaching profession, the Conant report noted this conclusion:

I can sum up my conclusion in a few sentences. The number of small high schools must be drastically reduced through district reorganization. Aside from this important change, I believe no radical alteration in the basic pattern of American education is necessary in order to improve our public high schools. If all the high schools were functioning as well as some I have visited, the education of all American youth would be satisfactory, except for the study of foreign languages and the guidance of the more able students."⁵

A conclusion that had become increasingly clear from many educational debates and discussions was stated early in 1959 by the Educational Policies Commission under the heading "*The program should be individualized,*" as follows:

Educational offerings should be appropriate to different students and to different social needs. . . . No two pupils should necessarily follow identical programs. When there are wide opportunities in the school, each program can be individually appropriate, provided there is adequate attention to guidance by all teachers and by professional counselors, including systematic collection and recording of detailed information about each pupil.⁶

In the period of secondary education ahead, perhaps one that will become stabilized in the 1960's, we expect certain developments to become more widespread as American citizens and educators seek the ideal of excellence for all in secondary schools. Some of these expectations may be summarized as follows:

1. More and better organized plans for lay participation in curriculum planning in local communities will be utilized.
2. Teachers will be better selected, trained, and paid, and special emphasis will be placed on their competence in the fields in which they teach.

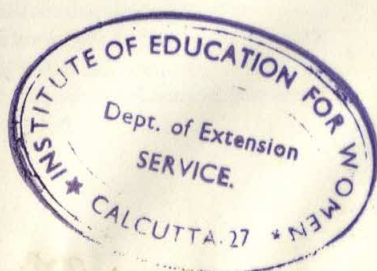
⁴ Henry Steele Commager, "A Historian Looks at the High School," in Francis S. Chase and Harold A. Anderson (eds.), *The High School in a New Era* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958), p. 9.

⁵ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), p. 40.

⁶ Educational Policies Commission, *An Essay on Quality in Public Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959), p. 22.

3. Teachers will be increasingly able to guide their pupils in the problem-solving abilities which characterize the intellectually able.
4. Larger high schools will develop multiple-track programs such as discussed in our Chapter 13; smaller schools will either get better support for small classes in a greater variety of subjects, or seek the services of part-time teachers or use other devices to offer a complete program of studies.
5. Guidance services will be more widely provided, and their improvement sought to the end of identifying early the talents of youth.
6. Some features of the activity program may be eliminated or reduced: athletics, festivals, contests, campaigns, for example.
7. Closer cooperation of the school and other community agencies will exist in regard to the management of maladjusted youth, and also in regard to the out-of-school educational program.
8. School district reorganization will continue with the objective of eliminating wherever possible high schools that cannot offer an adequate program of studies.
9. The six-three-three plan of school organization will become increasingly common, and the junior high school will develop better guidance services and exploratory programs for its pupils.
10. There will be more experimentation with different patterns of scheduling the school day than are now commonly employed, as well as with individualized schedules and programs for some pupils in accordance with their special capacities and needs.

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